

MONOGRAPHS ON FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

THE PROVISION
OF
POPULAR
READING
MATERIALS

U N E S C O

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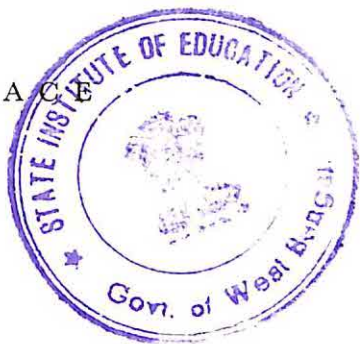


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P R E F A C E



To the knowledge of the Unesco Secretariat this book is unique in its field. Its uniqueness lies not so much in the several topics it examines—these have been discussed before, as the titles in the general bibliography will show—but rather in presenting in a single volume information on all aspects of literature production.

As such it has justification enough for its appearance, though a stronger argument can be built on an estimate of the need which it is hoped it will fill. Particularly over the last ten years a great amount has been published on the problems associated with teaching adults to read and write. Yet it was early recognized that without adequate follow-up to these efforts, without making provisions very early in the planning of literacy campaigns for an extensive range of reading materials on which the hard-won skills could be exercised, time, effort and money put into literacy teaching would be dissipated. Failure to do this has been one of the main reasons why literacy campaigns have earned more tombstones than monuments. To quote one of the present contributors, 'Literacy without literature is a contradiction in terms'.

Yet apart from general advice to potential authors of such reading material, reports from agencies on their work, research on such technical problems as word counts, vocabulary grading and so on, no systematic attempts have been made to discuss all aspects of the problems involved in making available to the new readers—adults and school leavers—material in book and periodical form in their own language at a price they can afford.

In 1955 Unesco began a programme of assistance, both by study and action, to national organizations engaged in dealing with these problems. In that year the Organization launched a long-term project in South-East Asia, a region where the need for such reading material is great and where all aspects of the problems involved—e.g., linguistic, economic, administrative, editorial, production—were manifest. Unesco action has been developed along traditional lines: aiding research into the different aspects of the problem; offering training facilities; sending experts, equipment and documentation; providing direct aid to production agencies in bringing out series of readers; organizing seminars and meetings. In 1956 a meeting of specialists from Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan was sponsored by

Unesco and held at Murree, West Pakistan. These specialists were asked to draw up plans for national programmes of development and advise on the future Unesco programme. A series of reports and technical papers were prepared for this meeting and these form the basis of this book. In preparing this material for publication, Unesco has been fortunate in obtaining the services of Mr. Charles Richards, whose many years of experience in literature production and distribution in East Africa qualifies him as one of the outstanding authorities in this subject. Though this book has been compiled during his term of office as Director of the East African Literature Bureau, nothing in his editorial notes is to be taken as a statement of the policies of the East African Governments.

Although we believe that the views of the most experienced people working in the field of literature production and the work of the most important agencies are represented here, the claim for comprehensiveness is no sooner made than its inadequacies become apparent. Many readers will wish that more had been said on some particular topic, e.g., the use of local dialects, or the use of cheap printing methods. The reader interested in periodicals for new literates is referred for a detailed treatment of the subject to two other Unesco publications: Periodicals for New Literates: Editorial Methods (Papers and Documents on Mass Communication series, No. 22), and Periodicals for New Literates: Seven Case Histories (Papers and Documents on Mass Communications series, No. 24). These two studies include a discussion of newspapers for new literates, an important topic not touched on in the present work. Again, this book is obviously not a 'how-to-do-it' manual. It is a record of experience made up of national reports, case studies and general papers on particular topics.

It is Unesco's hope that this pioneer effort will be the basis for more intensive and specialized studies and publications made nationally and internationally. Until these appear the Secretariat hopes that what is presented now will contain something of value to all—administrators, authors, publishers, village workers—who are active in this field.

In conclusion we point out that at the editor's suggestion we have included the comments on certain of the reports which Dr. Rupert East, who had worked on literature production in West Africa, Pakistan and Venezuela, had prepared for the meeting of specialists at Murree referred to above. These comments are identified by Dr. East's name. Comments by Mr. Richards bear the initials C.G.R.; those by the Unesco Secretariat the abbreviation Ed.

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INTRODUCTION

During the second quarter of this century the eradication of illiteracy has been a matter of concern to many governments and has inspired much imaginative and devoted effort by individuals and organizations, both voluntary and official. In the previous one hundred years a great deal had been done to produce for the first time written forms of many languages and to teach reading; but this was mostly done, particularly in the case of the work of voluntary organizations, as an aid to teaching religious and other forms of knowledge.

Literacy, in those earlier days, was therefore only one stage in a continued process during which the new skill was developed. The impersonal term 'new literate'—which places the adult man or woman in a category relative to a certain skill—had not been invented and the persons taught to read were individuals before whom new challenges would appear as a result of their relationship to the new knowledge to which literacy was the opened door. In the second quarter of the twentieth century, however, a novel concentration on literacy itself was begun. At first, it appears, the apostles of literacy felt that the teaching of this skill was a sufficient gift to mankind; it was assumed that a high percentage at least of new literates would voluntarily teach their own people and that there would be a natural progression from the literacy primer to existing books. The fact that 'need' does not automatically result in 'demand' was overlooked and the practical problems of publishing books for the new classes of readers were in the main ignored. In this third quarter of the century, however, the teaching of literacy alone has been seen to be insufficient and the approach to the problem of the illiterate person has become more ecological. The teaching of literacy is again being understood as only one stage in the process of assisting illiterate persons to take their full place as participants in the affairs of their community and their country. The problems of what is loosely called 'distribution', which include the ascertaining of demand and the mechanics of producing the required articles and building up a

distribution sales network, are now seen in their true significance.

It was to focus attention upon these problems that Unesco held, in Pakistan in June 1956, its Regional Meeting of Experts on the Production of Reading Material for New Literates. The Introduction to the *Interim Report* prepared by the Unesco Secretariat briefly sums up the technical aspect of literature provision and defines the 'new literate'.

'Experience in many countries shows that literacy campaigns have often failed because of a lack of reading materials to carry the new literate from the literacy class to the stage where he can read fluently for pleasure and profit. The adult who has successfully passed through a literacy course is usually equipped with only the most rudimentary skill in word-recognition and if, as is so often the case, the only literature available to him is far more advanced than anything he has so far tackled, it is hardly surprising that he should rapidly lose not only his interest in reading but also the ability he has acquired with so much energy and enthusiasm. The same phenomenon occurs among school-leavers who emerge into society where there is nothing to read at a suitable level, or at any rate, nothing of sufficient interest to develop and maintain the reading habit. If learning to read with ease and understanding is a long process, then it is equally true that the practice of reading for information or entertainment is hardly to be acquired in the course of a few years of schooling, still less in a few months of adult literacy classes.

'The term "new literate" should not be interpreted too narrowly. It is the word "new" which is particularly misleading, since it implies a time element which may or may not apply. The most useful definition of the term would cover any adult or adolescent who has at some period acquired the basic technique of reading, but has not yet developed his skill to the point where he can read with speed, fluency and complete understanding. He may have acquired the basic technique many years ago, or he may have graduated last month from a literacy class—in either case, his reading ability is still very limited. The definition may be extended still further to cover readers who are hampered less by their lack of technical proficiency than by their lack of reading experience, because of the inadequate supply of suitable reading matter in the society in which they have become literate. Obviously, there are varying degrees of imperfection and inexperience, so that among the literates are to be found all levels of achievement up to the highest levels of reading proficiency.'

This book contains, in the form of case studies presented to the regional meeting, accounts of the steps taken by a number of governments, in different parts of the world and in widely differing circumstances, to bridge the gap between the literacy primer and the normal productions of publishing houses.

A study of the papers shows that there is no standard pattern of approach to this problem. This is to be expected, for the new literate is not a standard type of person: the environment in which a high percentage of illiteracy exists must have a profound effect on planning for the provision of literature. The papers point to some of these differences of environment: one very distinct difference is the existence or lack of an extensive and varied literature in the language in which literacy is achieved; another is the form of government under which publishing activities are carried on. The purpose of this book is to present material on the different methods adopted under varying circumstances to ensure that literature for new literates does become available. It also describes in some detail the ways in which problems of production and distribution are being solved.

PART ONE

SOME NATIONAL STUDIES

CHAPTER I

PROVISIONS FOR NEW LITERATES IN INDIA¹

This report reveals an acute awareness throughout India of the urgency of ensuring a supply of reading material for new literates adequate in quality as well as quantity.

The author also shows the need (see page 39) for some central body to work in partnership with the many agencies producing literature, so as to: (a) evaluate existing material and make available to agencies the results of such study; (b) organize training in the preparation of reading material, printing techniques and librarianship. C.G.R.

INTRODUCTION

This preliminary survey of the work done in the production of reading material for the new literate adults in India deals with the important producing agencies, the procedures adopted, the materials produced, the library and distribution services, and the difficulties being faced. In conclusion, it points out the most pressing needs and gives a brief outline of the work that should be done in the immediate future for the production of reading material.

Procedure Adopted to Collect Data

In order to get first-hand information I made a tour of all the States of India which are doing any appreciable work in this field. In every State I tried to get into contact with the main agencies, official and non-official, producing and using the materials, and discussed the problem with organizers of literacy campaigns, heads of production units, supervisors of social education centres, librarians, literacy teachers, and new literate adults, both rural and urban, on whom some of the materials were tried out.

1. By MUSHTAQ AHMED, based on a survey conducted in 1956 by the Research, Training and Production Centre, Jamia Millia, and the Indian Adult Education Association, Delhi.

An 'open ended' questionnaire was also prepared, covering all the important aspects of production. This was filled up after discussion with the users and the producers of the materials in each State.

Limitations

The problems concerning the production and use of reading materials, in all the languages of India, are vast and complex. A thorough analysis would require a detailed study of the rural and urban library services, the selection and the training of the literacy teachers and supervisors, and the method of paying them, and a scientific evaluation of the materials. This survey should, therefore, not be considered as a complete and detailed study of all the problems in the field of materials production, but rather as a preliminary survey dealing with the broad points of interest and the most urgent needs.

AGENCIES ENGAGED IN THE PRODUCTION OF READING MATERIALS

Form of Organization

There are about seventy-two official, voluntary or private literature-producing agencies in India which may be grouped according to their form of organization as follows:

Agencies having a separate production unit, e.g.: (a) the Directorate of Social Welfare, Nagpur, consisting of 1 production and publicity officer, 2 sub-editors, 2 writers, 1 artist, and clerical staff. (b) Idara Talim-O-Taraqqi, Jamia Millia, Delhi, consisting of 1 director of production, 2 editors, 2 artists, and clerical staff. (c) Literacy House, Allahabad, consisting of 1 administrator (as adviser), 1 chief editor, 1 artist, and clerical staff.

Agencies having an advisory or a consultative committee, the administrative staff being responsible for production, e.g.: (a) Bombay City Social Education Committee, Bombay, which has a literature sub-committee consisting of public men having general experience in the socio-education field and four language sub-committees, one each for Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi and Urdu. (b) the Education Department (Adult Education Section), Madras.

Agencies having a committee as well as a production unit, e.g.: (a) Planning Research and Action Centre, Lucknow, which has a literature production committee, consisting of representatives from the Research Centre, the Education Department, the In-

formation Directorate, the All India Radio, Rural Section, the Social Education Department; the production unit consists of an editor and 2 artists. All manuscripts are prepared by the unit. The unit itself undertook the printing at first but now has a contract with a private publisher in Banaras. (b) Bihar Social Education Board, Patna, which has an adult literature committee consisting of the Secretary, Adult Education Board, and the Publications Officer. All manuscripts go to the committee for review before publication. The production unit consists of 1 publication officer, 1 language expert, 1 literature officer, 1 artist, and clerical staff. (c) Mysore State Adult Education Council, Mysore, which has a publications committee consisting of representatives of the Mysore University, a representative of the Education Department, a medical practitioner, a politician and ex-editor of *Belaku*; the production unit consists of 1 chief editor, 1 sub-editor, 1 research assistant (temporary), 1 artist, and clerical staff. Manuscripts are invited from authors, reviewed by the committee, then edited and published by the production unit.

Agencies where a single individual (the manager or the proprietor) has the final authority. All private publishers and individuals may be grouped under this section. They invite manuscripts from authors, revise them, if they think necessary, and then publish them.

Training

Among the members of the advisory or the consultative committees, the staff of the production units, managers or proprietors of private firms very few have specialized training in the techniques of production. But most of those engaged in the governmental or government-assisted agencies and the voluntary organizations have made detailed study of these techniques and are very well qualified educationally. This, however, cannot be said of a majority of private publishers. They rely upon government notifications for the choice of topics and follow the standard of the language and the lay-out of books approved by the government for the village libraries. To most of them the only criteria of 'readability' are 'big type' and 'easy language', of which, however, they have little scientific knowledge.

Field Experience

Where a production unit is part of a social education department,

members of its staff have the opportunity to visit the field, study the life of the people at close quarters, assess their needs and interests and see their materials in action. But unfortunately this opportunity is seldom taken. Production staffs rarely visit the villages, and take it for granted that the materials they produce serve their purpose. In some places indirect efforts are made to judge the 'efficacy' and the 'suitability' of their materials through the field staff (supervisors, inspectors or welfare officers)—this also through casual talks and not in any systematic way.

Most of the members of the advisory committees are educationally well qualified, but they have little experience in the production of material or in teaching adults to read and write. They are busy people and seldom get time to go to the field to try out a book or watch a teacher taking an adult class or an adult reading a book so as to assess his difficulties. Such technical knowledge should not be expected from them of course, as their role is only to advise on the general suitability of the subject, the selection of author, the remuneration to be paid and the printing arrangements.

Private publishers have entered this field very recently and, with but few exceptions, have no clear idea of the attainments, difficulties and interests of the new literate. But it is to their credit that they are alive to their limitations and are willing to improve their publications, provided they are sure of a market. Recently the Samaj Shikshan Prakashan, Delhi, has brought out an attractive and well-graded series of supplementary books for the post-literacy stage. They have specialized in attractive presentation and have produced some very fine books.

Guidance Given to Authors

The agencies mentioned above, especially the official and the semi-official ones, brief the authors asked to submit manuscripts. The instructions are sometimes quite exact, as the following extracts show.

First, from the directions issued by the Director of Public Instruction, Madras: 'The literature is primarily meant for the village folk and it should, therefore, be in simple, basic vocabulary. . . . The following points should be borne in mind by the authors: (a) the subject matter of the books should be interesting to the adult; (b) the style should be simple and idiomatic; (c) sentences should be short and forceful; (d) technical terms should be avoided as far as possible; (e) the books may be in any form—narrative, descriptive, dialogue, story, drama, etc.'

The second extract is from the Bombay City Social Education

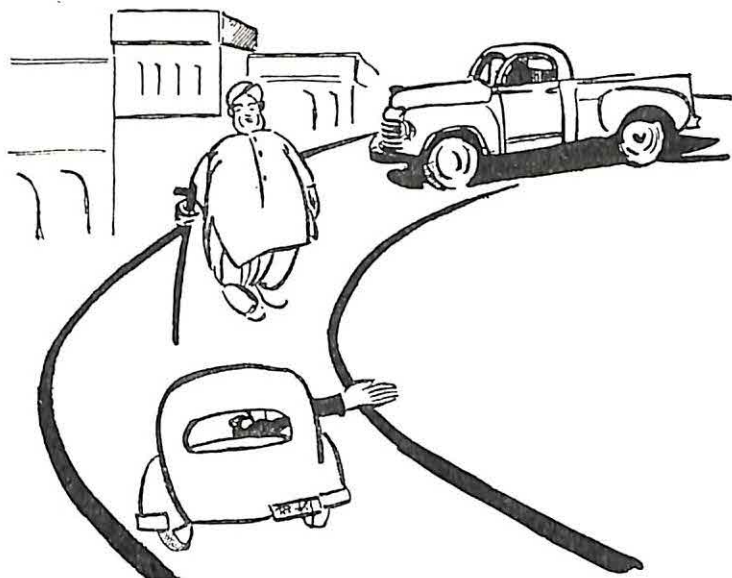
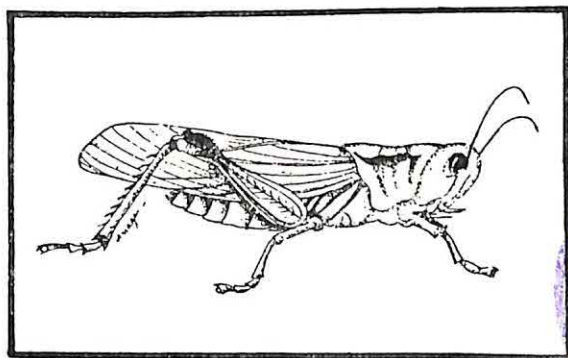


Fig. 1. Humour in text or illustration attracts the newly literate reader.

Nagrik Adhikar aur Kartavya (Civic Rights and Duties), Delhi, Idara Talim-O-Taraqqi.



फुदकने वाला कीड़ा

Fig. 2. Explanatory drawings must be very clear and simple, with no unnecessary details.

Makkar (Reader), Delhi, Sarvodaya Prakashan.

Committee's scheme for cheap and useful social education literature for new literates: 'The committee has prepared a rough outline of subjects for the proposed social education literature—it will be seen that the object underlying the list is to build up literature which should promote desirable attitudes and wholesome sentiments covering every aspect of the life of the common man.

'The following points have been generally suggested to give some idea as to the principles to be kept in view in preparing reading matter for adults: positive presentation; easy vocabulary; avoidance of difficult words; simple sentences; short sentences; unnecessary phrases to be omitted; comparison should be made with familiar things; present tense wherever possible; use of folklore and folk ways; use of rhythm; frequent use of humour; write to one person and not to the whole world at large; put yourself in the reader's place; use a fable or a parable whenever possible; be reliable, authentic and up-to-date with factual matter.

'The style and diction for the presentation of the subject matter should be simple in order that the new literates can read with ease and interest.'

These suggestions prove helpful to authors already trained and experienced in the art of simple writing and having field experience as their background. But an author new to this work may find them difficult to comply with. Most authors have little experience of teaching adults to read; they seldom visit a literacy class in action; they have seldom sat close to a new literate and watched him reading a book. The majority of authors writing for adults are city born; although they may have a general idea of the problems facing adults in rural areas, they cannot be expected to have real insight into their day-to-day difficulties and problems. The advice and suggestions they offer are of a general nature and not of immediate interest to the people.

While touring India to collect data for this report, I went to meet a few new literates about three miles outside the city of Allahabad. I had five follow-up books with me on different topics, all having similar covers. I met seven Harijans, who had been issued literacy certificates (by the Literacy House, Allahabad) and were very keen to possess books and read them. I placed the books before them and asked which of them they would like to read. Five of them selected a book *Our Home (Hamar Ghar)* and gave the following reasons for selecting it: 'It will tell us how to build a good house cheaply; I have a small plot of land and a little money.' 'We have heard that there should be windows in the house and separate places for different purposes. This may give me an idea of such a house.' 'My chief concern is my bulls. If I

tie them outside somebody may steal them. I would like to have a house with enough space for all of us. This may give me some new idea.' But the book only dealt with houses in which men used to live 1,000 years ago!

There may be some readers who are interested in such general studies, but it will be better if we have a clear idea of the audience for whom we are writing and with what purpose.

Checking the Authenticity of Factual Information

Most of the specialized agencies take elaborate care to see that factual information is correct, and they send the manuscripts to technical experts for checking before printing. Private publishers, however, may just depend upon the author and often not take the necessary steps to check the facts.

Resources Available to and Difficulties faced by Agencies

Twenty-five agencies were interviewed to find out why they had not reached their production targets. Most of the agencies gave more than one reason; the following analysis of their answers indicates the various reasons and the number of agencies which gave them: lack of funds 9, of trained production staff 3, of trained writers 7, of artists 11, of printing facilities 5, of printing paper 1, of demand 4.

The government, the semi-governmental agencies and the private publishers have the necessary funds, but voluntary organizations and private individuals are handicapped in this respect. There is no doubt that they would be able to produce a great deal more if they were helped financially, especially with special projects. I have met a few individuals who have devoted themselves selflessly to the cause of social education. Some of them are also carrying out small experiments in teaching adults to read and write in their own way. If a little financial help and recognition of their services were forthcoming they could make a more useful contribution to the growth of popular literature.

Most private publishers complained of high postal rates. A book selling at 12 annas¹ costs as much more to send by post. This discourages individual buyers. There are also difficulties in sending parcels by train, and the freight charges are high. The question of reducing postal charges might be taken up by the Ministry of Education with the appropriate government department.

1. Indian currency (1956): 12 pies = 1 anna; 16 annas = 1 rupee. Exchange rate: 1 rupee = U.S. \$0.21.



Only one agency has mentioned the lack of printing paper. Most are of opinion that enough paper is available throughout India of every quality and in every size. The fact remains, however, that the supply of good printing paper cannot cope with the increasing demand. There are occasions when the printing of important materials is held up for a considerable period because good printing paper is not available.

Printing facilities are improving constantly and the foundries are making better type of every size and face and much more artistic in design. There are printers in every big city who have specialized in the art of lay-out, book design and general presentation, but on the whole the position is not very satisfactory. Most printers have little knowledge of the techniques of good lay-out and design and their role in making a book readable. Bad printing, however, is not always the fault of the printer; often he is not given enough time by the publishers and in addition he is not well paid.

Most of the agencies interviewed feel that there is no lack of technically qualified writers and production staff. Although the reading material they produce has not yet been evaluated, the community projects, the panchayats (local councils) and the libraries buy a good deal and it is commonly believed that because it sells it must be good. The agencies which also organize field work and have a scientific approach (e.g., Literacy House, Allahabad, and Allahabad Agricultural Institute) do have ideas regarding the suitability of the materials they produce, and certain agencies make a continual effort to improve their work. Inevitably, agencies which do not carry out field work have no yardstick but the market.

In fact, there is a serious lack of trained writers who may be understood and enjoyed by the new literates and who can assess their work by the following standards: Whom are they writing for? Why are they writing? What are they writing? How much do the people know about the subject already? Is that what they want to know? And with what result? Does the book serve the purpose for which it has been written? Is it readable?

As many as eleven agencies report a lack of artists. Perhaps what most of them refer to is not the lack of trained book illustrators, but artists who will draw in terms of the new literate. There seems to be very few artists who can illustrate a text with simplicity, clarity and force. Among the vast amount of material produced it is in fact difficult to find a book with simple and forceful illustrations, such as for instance, those in the Spanish publications of the Pan-American Union, Washington, especially *La Viruela*.

There are probably some artists who are able to draw for our simple village people, but none of the agencies seem to commission them.

READING MATERIALS ¹

Supplementary Books

A list of sample first-stage supplementary books in Hindi is given in Table 1.

Some explanation might be given here as to the kind of books which have been classified under this heading. The entire period of literacy teaching in India is generally divided into 3 stages.

Literacy stage. Materials to teach the basic skill of reading and writing are used at this stage, which generally lasts $2\frac{1}{2}$ -3 months, or 50-60 hours at 20 teaching hours a month.

Post-literacy stage. Simple books on various topics, to develop the skill of reading and writing further, are used in the class at this stage, which lasts on an average for 3 months, or 60 hours. Thus the total period of teaching in the class comes to $5\frac{1}{2}$ -6 months, or 110-120 hours. There are, however, exceptions: e.g., in Madhya Pradesh the total period of teaching in the class is 12 months.

Follow-up stage. The student is now out of the formal class. A library consisting of follow-up books on various topics, written in simple language, is provided. The student is expected to make use of these books for recreational reading, general knowledge and information, and for further improving his reading skill.

A sufficient number of books suitable for the second half of the post-literacy stage are available, but very little has been prepared for the first half. For the first half of the post-literacy stage what we term as 'first-stage supplementary books' are needed. It is difficult to fix definite criteria for the selection of such books, as no common standards have been adopted by those who produce this type of material.

However, we have stressed the following broad criteria for selecting books under this heading:

1. The text should not occupy more than half the total space. The remaining space should be used for simple, attractive and forceful illustrations.

1. *Primers.* The interesting notes in the case study on different methods of teaching reading in use in India are not included in this volume which is concerned with the production of reading material for the stages following the acquisition of literacy. [Ed]

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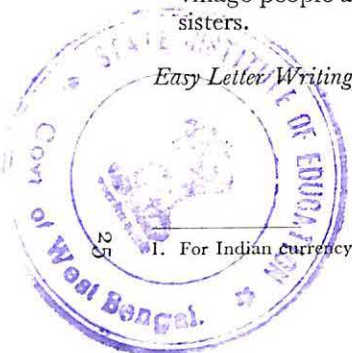
TABLE 1. Supplementary books in Hindi

Name and content	Pages	Size	Paper	Illustrations		Price	Publishers
				Cover	In text		
<i>Mahabharat</i> The story of the Kauravas and the Pandavas.	16	Crown 4to	WP	MC	TC	annas ¹ 15	Samaj Shikshan Prakashan, Delhi
<i>Netaji (Subhas Chandra Bose)</i> Life sketch of Subhas Chandra Bose.	16	Crown 4to	WP	TC	TC	15	Samaj Shikshan Prakashan, Delhi
<i>Brave Ladies</i> Biographical sketches of some famous women.	16	Crown 4to	WP	TC	—	12	Samaj Shikshan Prakashan, Delhi
<i>Three Great Men</i> Biographical sketches of Mahatma Buddha, Swami Dayanand and Tagore.		Crown 4to	WP	TC	—	12	Samaj Shikshan Prakashan, Delhi
<i>Our Ram</i> The story of Ram and Sita.	28	Foolscap 4to	WP	—	SC(26)	12	Saraswati Sadan, Delhi
<i>Stories Part I</i> Moral stories.	16	Demy 8vo	WP	TC	TC(7)	5	Idara Talim-O- Taraqqi, Delhi
<i>Stories Part II</i> Moral stories.	16	Demy 8vo	WP	TC	TC(7)	5	Idara Talim-O- Taraqqi, Delhi

<i>Puran the Saint</i> Moral story.	36	Demy 8vo	WP	SC	SC(30)	6	National Publishing House, Delhi
<i>Ramlal's Story</i> Advantages of good manure and control of soil erosion.	50	Royal 8vo	SC	MC	SC(23)	—	Education Directorate, Delhi State
<i>Village Service</i> We should co-operate with each other to keep the village clean.	16	Royal 8vo	WP	TC	SC(6)	3	Mishr Bandhu Karya- laya, Jabalpur
<i>Ali Baba and the forty thieves</i>	24	Foolscap 4to	WP	SC4	TC(4)	8	Pustak Bhandar, Patna
<i>A Story</i> Importance of medical aid.	32	Crown 8vo	SC	—	SC(4)	6	National Publishing House, Delhi
<i>The Villages of the Province</i> All villages belong to the entire people of the village. All the village people are brothers and sisters.	16	Crown 8vo	WP	TC	SC(7)	3	Mishr Bandhu Karya- laya, Jabalpur
<i>Easy Letter Writing</i>	32		WP	TC	—	12	Saraswathi Bhawan, Delhi

IA = Imitation art MC = Multi-colour
 WP = White printing TC = Two-colour
 SC = Super-calendered SC = Single-colour

1. For Indian currency, see footnote on page 21.



2. The idea should be very simple.
3. The theme selected should be very close to the everyday problems of the people.
4. If the book is lengthy it should be divided into small independent units.
5. The sentences should be short.
6. Only the most common words should be used.
7. The number of the conjunct consonants should not be too great.
8. The type should not be smaller than 24 point. Attractive cover page and good print is considered a prerequisite for all materials for new literates.

In the light of the above criteria, the number of first-stage supplementary books for the first half of the post-literacy stage are indeed few. Of the total Hindi production only 14 books have been found suitable to be classified as 'first-stage supplementary books'. Yet this stage is vital for developing reading skills and a desire for further learning. If the philosophy 'variety is life' is true in the case of follow-up books, it would seem to be equally true for supplementary books. There is then a definite need for many more readable books for adults at this stage of literacy.

Follow-up Books

A vast amount of follow-up reading material for the new literate adult has been produced in India, especially in Hindi. Perhaps the first planned effort was made in 1936 (when the first Congress ministries came into power) by Dr. Syed Mohmud, then Minister of Education in Bihar. Under his guidance about a hundred pamphlets, each 10-12 pages of crown 8vo size and costing one anna, were produced in Hindustani on various topics of interest. But the project was abandoned soon after the Congress ministries resigned. In recent years the greatest impulse came from the Union Ministry of Education in 1950. Early that year the ministry entered into an agreement with the Idara Talim-O-Taraqqi, Jamia Millia, to bring out and distribute the follow-up reading material it had been preparing for the past ten years. These pamphlets were on various topics of rural and urban interest. They were all the same size (demy 8vo, 16 pages) and most of them had attractive covers, each bearing the title of the series *Adult Education Series*.

The ministry continued its policy of encouraging and helping various organizations to produce 'social education literature'. However, foreseeing that the lack of authors trained in the techniques of simple writing might become a bottleneck in the pro-

duction of such materials, it started a series of 'literary workshops', in different linguistic regions of India, in order to train authors in the techniques of preparing reading materials for new literates. Although the period of training was short (4-6 weeks) the authors did get some idea of the techniques of writing for new literates and checking their manuscripts with the potential users. A fair number of manuscripts were also prepared as a by-product of these workshops.

The ministry also set up a Folk Literature Committee to encourage authors to write simple books for new literates. The committee invites manuscripts and printed books in all the languages of India and awards handsome prizes to those found most suitable. In 1954-55, the committee awarded 35 prizes, 5 of 1,000 rupees each and 30 of 500 rupees each. In 1956 it awarded prizes to 42 books. In addition, the committee purchases 1,000 copies of each book receiving a prize, and recommends it to the State Governments.

Another laudable scheme sponsored by the ministry is the preparation of a list of words most commonly spoken in the rural areas in India. The list for the State of Delhi has been completed, and work is progressing in the States of West Bengal, Andhra and Travancore Cochin.

These schemes of the Union Ministry of Education were timely helps and have gone a long way towards encouraging the production of reading materials for new literates.

Meanwhile the first Five-Year Plan came into force. The community projects and rural libraries became good buyers of such materials. Soon State Governments, voluntary organizations and private publishers entered this new field and now the number of follow-up books runs, at least in Hindi, into thousands. Kannada and Marathi have also an adequate supply of such books.

Efforts are being made by State Governments and voluntary organizations in Bengal, Madras, Travancore Cochin, Hyderabad and Bombay to bring out suitable reading materials in Bengali, Tamil, Malayalam, Telegu and Gujarati. In Madras, the Education Department has already 20 manuscripts in hand. The South Indian Adult Education Association has planned to bring out six books in the *Our Life* series, dealing with the problems of rural life, and a series of books in Tamil and Telegu introducing the Tamilnad—one book for every district. Travancore Cochin has a plan to bring out 50 follow-up books and 100 posters. The Bombay City Social Education Committee has an ambitious scheme to bring out follow-up books in the regional languages, namely, Gujarati, Marathi, Hindi and Urdu, on health education,

family education, elementary civics, common crafts, general culture, general knowledge.

In addition, voluntary organizations such as Sasta Sahitya Mandal and private publishers like Keshav Vikhaji Dhavre are producing quite a number of books, one of which has won a prize from the Folk Literature Committee. The Christian Literature Society is also bringing out a good number of simple, well-illustrated books on the life and teaching of Christ in the South Indian languages. The Bengal Mass Education Society has brought out a number of books in Bengali on various topics. These books are to be read in the class by the teacher to stimulate interest in reading and later on to be read by the students themselves when they have become literate.

It is a major project in itself to collect all the follow-up books produced in various languages and prepare a complete bibliography of suitable reading materials. Many topics of both rural and urban interest have been covered by follow-up reading materials produced by the various agencies. There is no dearth of such literature, at least in Hindi, Kannada and Marathi.

Of course, the materials differ widely from the point of view of general presentation, choice of topics, language used and treatment. We find books with multi-colour covers printed on cardboard, text printed on art and antique paper, attractive coloured illustrations as well as books with unattractive single colour covers printed on very ordinary paper, text printed on light white printing paper and without illustrations. The choice of topic varies from those very closely related to rural life to remote subjects. The length of the sentences varies considerably from 4 to 37 words (e.g., *The Story of the Development of Man*, published by the National Publishing House, Delhi). The majority of them use simple language, but there are quite a number which use very difficult language (e.g., *Swatantra Bharat ki Ek Kahani* and *Arthshastra aur Uske Sidhant*, published by the Adult Education Board, Bihar).

These questions, however, remain: How many of these are 'readable' by students completing the post-literacy stage? Are the majority of students able to read them with ease and comprehension with the reading skills that they have attained and other desirable habits they have developed during the literacy and post-literacy stages? How many of them deal with the specific problems facing rural and urban adults and offer practical solutions for them? These and many other important questions cannot be answered satisfactorily without evaluating the books in the field.

Periodicals

A periodical can be very effective in keeping alive the interest of adults in reading for it brings in fresh news. If properly encouraged, the new literates may themselves contribute to it, and what a joy it is to read one's own article!

Almost every State brings out a periodical of its own; Table 2 lists the periodicals specially issued for new literate adults in India.

Visual Aids

Thus far the only visual aids used in India as direct teaching aids have been alphabetical charts accompanying some of the primers (e.g., the Laubach and Pathik primers). A large number of posters have also been published by various organizations (e.g., the Allahabad Agricultural Institute and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting), mostly on topics relating to 'developmental activities', such as improved seed, smallpox, dry weather ploughing, Ranikhet (poultry disease), and the various aspects of the Five-Year Plan.

India Village Service, Marehra (Uttar Pradesh), has brought out a number of flash cards. These flash cards have 'stick figures' in black and white printed upon them. They are popularly known as the 'jet series'. The flash cards are on topics such as malaria, itch, safe village wells, tetanus.

The price of a set of flash cards on one topic ranges from Rs. 1 to Rs. 2/8.

These visual aids can be used with profit in the class-room, and also as direct media in teaching literacy and as indirect aids to the whole programme.

RESEARCH INTO NEEDS AND INTERESTS; PRE-TESTING

The choice of language and style, is made by a committee or by individual producers and authors. Where the agency happens to have a production as well as a field unit, e.g., the Social Welfare Department, Nagpur, Literacy House, Allahabad, and Mysore Adult Education Council, the field staff is consulted as to the suitability of the topics selected and is sometimes asked to suggest topics. However, no systematic study has yet been made of the reading interests and habits of new literate adults.

According to field workers (literacy teachers, supervisors, village librarians) the reading preferences of the village adults may be

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

TABLE 2. Periodicals issued for new literate adults.

<i>Title</i>	<i>Timing</i>	<i>Language</i>	<i>Subscription rates</i>	<i>Issued by</i>
<i>Deepak</i> (Lamp)	Monthly	Hindi	Rs. ¹ Free	Social Welfare Dept., Nagpur
<i>Rahbar</i> (Leader)	Fortnightly	Hindi	3	Bombay City Social Education Committee, Bombay
<i>Ujala</i> (Light)	Fortnightly	Hindi	2	Literacy House, Allahabad (U.P.)
<i>Gaon ki Bat</i> (Village affairs)	Fortnightly	Hindi	6	Shaligram Pathik, Gonda
<i>Paramhans</i> (Name of God)	Weekly	Hindi	6/4	Shaligram Pathik, Gonda
<i>Nai Shiksha</i> (New education)	Monthly	Hindi	4/8	Tahveldaron ka Rasta, Jaipur
<i>Mandir se</i> (From the Temple)	Fortnightly	Hindi	—	Etawah Develop- ment Project
<i>Hamara Gaon</i> (Our village)	Fortnightly	Hindi	2/4	Delhi State Social Education Dept., Delhi
<i>Hamara Shahar</i> (Our city)	Fortnightly	Hindi	2/4	Delhi State Social Education Dept., Delhi
<i>Deepak</i> (Lamp)	Monthly	Marathi	Free	Social Welfare Dept., Nagpur
<i>Lokashikshan</i> (People's education)	Monthly	Marathi	3	Regional Social Education Committee for Maharashtra, Poona
<i>Rahbar</i> (Leader)	Fortnightly	Urdu	3	Bombay City Social Education Committee, Bombay

PROVISIONS FOR NEW LITERATES IN INDIA

<i>Title</i>	<i>Timing</i>	<i>Language</i>	<i>Subscription rates</i>	<i>Issued by</i>
			Rs. ¹	
<i>Belaku</i> (Light)	Weekly	Kannada	2	Mysore State Adult Education Council, Mysore
<i>Prakash</i> (Light)	Monthly	Kannada	3	Regional Social Education Committee for Karnatka Belgaum
<i>Lokajeewan</i> (People's life)	Fortnightly	Gujerati	3	Regional Social Committee for Gujarat, Ahmedabad
<i>Anandam</i> (Pleasure)	Weekly	Tamil	2	T. J. R. Gopal & P. N. Nauman
<i>Janjiwan</i> (People's life)	Weekly	Hindi	1/8	Samaj Shiksha Board, Patna, Bihar
<i>Jiwan</i> (Life)	Monthly	Hindi	1/8	Abundant Life Programme, Tokhtpur, Bilaspur (M.P.)

1. For Indian currency, see footnote on page 21.

broadly classified in the following order: (a) books with a religious appeal and books on mythology; (b) biographies of religious leaders, reformers and national leaders; (c) stories and seasonal songs (e.g., Kajri in Eastern Uttar Pradesh); (d) books on agriculture.

In Madras, however, according to a well-known field worker, people like to read books on Mahatma Gandhi's life and on astronomy!

Some of the agencies pre-test their primers, by using them in the classes for some time before they are put into mass production. The general practice followed by well-established agencies (e.g., Literacy House, Allahabad) is to provide cyclostyled primers to certain teachers for use in a number of classes. These classes are 'observed' by supervisors and sometimes by the head of the agency or the unit, and words, sentences and illustrations found to be

unsuitable are changed. Sometimes the order of the introduction of letters or words is also altered. This method of testing, however, is not altogether satisfactory.

The supplementary and the follow-up books are given even less pre-testing before mass production. I once asked a veteran worker of Madras, 'Do you pre-test your materials before mass production and, if so, how do you do it?'. He outlined a very interesting technique: 'Yes, I pre-test them; I read out the manuscript to my worker, the worker reads it out to the students, and then he asks one of the students to read it out.' It had been pre-tested!

A New Phase

Some of the voluntary agencies have set up research units to put their production programme on a scientific basis and to guide their entire field activities. In this connexion, we mention briefly the following agencies: (a) Bombay City Social Education Committee; (b) Jamia Millia Islamia, Delhi; (c) Mysore State Adult Education Council; (d) Literacy House, Allahabad.

Bombay City Social Education Committee. The research unit set up by the committee consists so far of only one person (Miss S. D. Samant) with an honorary adviser (Dr. M. R. Shah). The unit was set up only recently and for the time being is planned for only one year, not because the committee is not aware of the permanent need for it, but because it lacks funds and finds it difficult to convince donors of the need for such a 'luxury' department.

One of the projects taken up by the unit, and now well on its way, relates to the 'reading preferences of adults in Bombay City'. The interview technique was adopted and, on a random sampling basis, 1,000 adults were interviewed; the analysis of the findings is not yet complete (1956).

Jamia Millia Islamia. The Jamia set up a research unit (research, training and production) in September 1955. Its purpose is to carry on research and scientific investigation into the problems facing the workers in the field; to produce specimen educational materials as a result of its investigations; to train a small number of persons at a time in the techniques of testing, evaluation and production.

The unit has taken up two projects sponsored by Unesco as its first-term programme: (a) a survey of the reading materials for new literates in India; (b) an evaluation of the materials and the

preparation of a report setting forth guiding principles for the production of such materials in the light of conditions in India. The second project included the preparation of six specimen books on the lines of those principles and a study of the reading interests of new literate adults.

Mysore Adult Education Council. The council has appointed on a temporary basis a research assistant, trained for some time at the Unesco Group Training Scheme, Mysore. The council has not yet made definite plans for its research, but it is probable that it will take up a comparative study of the set of primers prepared by the literacy team of the Unesco Group Training Scheme on the global method, and its own set of primers based on the traditional method.

Literacy House, Allahabad. The Literacy House has not set up any research unit as such, but it undertakes small research projects from time to time. It has evolved criteria for the selection of books for its 'Tin Trunk Library', which are based on:

Suitability of content. Is the subject matter such as the villager needs to know or would like to know?

Correctness of information.

Suitability of vocabulary. Is the vocabulary within the framework of the new literate's vocabulary?

Interest. Will the books hold the reader's interest?

It has analysed 460 books, according to the above criteria, graded them into stages and constituted from them its 'Tin Trunk Library'. The library is for sale at Rs.25 with the tin box and 50 graded books. Recently, when Dr. Rudolf Flesch was there, it started a project to evolve a set of principles for grading books in Hindi on the pattern of Dr. Flesch's formula of 'measuring difficulty'.¹

This trend may be called a new phase in the production of reading materials in India. Other agencies are also recognizing the importance and urgency of such scientific studies. But they have no precedent to follow and are keen to learn the techniques of testing and evaluation. These research units deserve encouragement and help in continuing their studies and investigations so as to carry on scientific testing and evaluation programmes of already existing reading materials; guide the future production programme of the agencies which are planning to take up the production of reading materials on a mass scale; reorganize literacy teaching

1. R. Flesch, *How to Test Readability*, Harper, New York, 1951.

programmes; make available to other agencies the techniques of pre-testing and evaluation.

LIBRARY AND DISTRIBUTION SERVICES

The main types of agency responsible for the distribution of the reading materials are as follows: community projects; social education departments; libraries, both official and non-official; voluntary organizations; publishers and booksellers.

The first four agencies are the 'direct' distributing ones, which send the books to villages through their own workers. The last agency is both direct and indirect, but principally the latter. The 'main' publisher distributes the books to the 'sub-stations' (retail bookseller, branches and agencies) all over the country. The main publisher and the sub-stations both get in touch with the direct distributing agencies and sell books to them. Some villagers may visit the stalls and buy the books themselves or order the books directly from the publishers, but such cases are rare.

The system of establishing a village library varies from place to place. The Mysore Adult Education Council does so on the condition that the village *panchayat* agrees to contribute Rs.30 for the first year. The total cost of the library is Rs.100, Rs.70 being paid by the council. The library not only contains the follow-up books published by the council, 100 in number, but also other books, a newspaper, a magazine and a bookshelf. The small amount of Rs.2 per month is provided to pay the librarian. These libraries are replenished with new books every year if the village pays its share, but otherwise the same old books are stocked.

Madras has an elaborate library system consisting of the State Central Library, district central libraries, branch libraries and delivery stations. The State Central Library, located in the capital, has a State library committee, of which the Minister of Education acts as chairman. The Director of Public Instruction has been given the powers of Director of Libraries. A district central library comes under a local library authority consisting of official and non-official members. The local library authority decides what books to buy. The branch libraries are located in towns where the population is between 5 and 50 thousand; each branch library has a sub-committee of the local library authority and the latter can purchase books up to Rs.2,000 per year. The delivery stations are located in villages where the population is less than 5,000; the aim is to have a library in every village; the village school teacher is put in charge of the library, with a remuneration of Rs.15 per

month, and the books are brought to the delivery station from the branch library by a cycle peon or the school teacher himself whenever he visits the town.

Travancore Cochin has perhaps the greatest number of 'living' libraries. The percentage of literacy in Travancore is in fact the highest in India (about 56 per cent). The people had built their own libraries under the auspices of Tri-Kochi Granthasala Sangham (Travancore Cochin Library Association) long before the Social Education Department came into being. The State Government recognizes the Tri-Cochi Granthasala Sangham; it inspects the libraries associated with it and acts as a channel for government grants to them. Some of the village libraries in Travancore have radios and general reading rooms, with daily newspapers and a large number of magazines, and a separate reading room for women and children.

Funds

Every local library maintains a fund to which the following sums are credited: (a) Cess collected under the Madras Public Libraries Act 1948, i.e. a levy of 6 pies in the rupee in the form of surcharge on the proposed tax on property; (b) contributions, gifts and income from endowments made for the benefit of public libraries; (c) special grants which the government may make for any specific purpose connected with libraries; (d) fees, fines and other amounts collected by the local library authority under any rules or regulations made under the Act.

The State Government also contributes to the library fund, maintained by every local library authority except the city of Madras, a sum not less than the cess collected by it.

In the villages where community projects or the State social education departments are active, the people are encouraged to have their own libraries. A grant is usually given and the social education organizer may help the village to select and buy books. On the whole, however, the selection is made by the departmental heads in consultation with the production units, the supervisors and the literacy teachers (e.g., in Nagpur). A list of 'approved' or 'recommended' books is then published. Books on this list are purchased and supplied to the villages.

The Village Library

It is the general practice throughout India that wherever a literacy class is opened, a library is provided. If the class has been

opened by an agency which itself produces reading materials they are provided free. For other materials the village makes a partial contribution.

Thus the village library consists of books specially prepared for the new literate adults and/or selected from among general books. Some of them have daily newspapers, magazines and periodicals specially issued for the new literates. The library consists of small wooden shelves or tin or wooden boxes holding from 100 to 500, or more, books.

The literacy teacher is usually put in charge of the library. In most cases he is a primary school teacher, and either resides in the same village or comes from one nearby, or he may be a village youth. In rare cases he is a full-time employee of the department (e.g., in Delhi State). When he is not a full-time worker he is sometimes paid a small honorarium of from Rs.2 to Rs.15 to look after the library, although he may be expected to give his services free. A stock register and an issue register is maintained by him. He is given no training in librarianship, except in how to maintain the two registers.

Most of these librarians do not take much interest in their work—perhaps because they are poorly paid—nor are they of much help to the borrowers. Their chief duty seems to be to register a book and issue it when asked for. Unfortunately the number of new literate borrowers is very small; it is difficult to give an all-India average of books issued per day, but it would be very low. Nor is it possible to judge on the basis of the number of books issued whether people really read and understand. Books have been returned unread, because they were too difficult or for lack of time to read. On the other hand, a book issued to one member of the family may be read not only by all the educated members of the family but also by the other educated people of the locality. This is particularly true of women, who seldom themselves visit the libraries, but get the books issued through someone else.

The majority of borrowers in villages are those who are already educated, or schoolchildren. Few new literates, once they are out of the class, read books unless special efforts are made to induce them to do so. The members of the Unesco Group Training Scheme, Mysore,¹ during the course of their training, carried out a programme in 1955 to evaluate a few follow-up books. They interviewed people from nine villages in the Mysore Taluq, on a random sampling basis. A questionnaire was drawn up to find out whether those interviewed had made use of their literacy in any

1. See p. 33.

way: one had read two books; one had 'glanced two or three times through' the *Belaku* (a weekly periodical for new literates, which is supplied free); the rest had not touched a book or written a single line since learning to read and write over a year before.

But it would not be correct to assume that the situation throughout India is quite so gloomy, or that it cannot be improved. The new literates have to be guided and encouraged for a long time, even after the post-literacy stage. Librarians must be well trained to assess the reading skills and interests of an individual before recommending a book to him. They should also learn how to exploit a situation, such as the occasion when an eye infection broke out in a village where the Allahabad Agricultural Institute was working. One *gaon sathi*¹ took advantage of the fact that the institute had previously produced a pamphlet on eye diseases, which had an attractive cover page and cost 1 anna. He first talked to the people about the causes of the disease there and then introduced the book which sold 'like hot cakes'. I found the workers of the Delhi State Social Education Department using the same technique in the village of Narayana where, on 5 August 1955, as many as 14 new literates had borrowed a book called *Our Flag* and on 3 September one on co-operatives. The teacher had talked to the class about the significance of Independence Day (15 August), which was drawing near, and how it was going to be celebrated in Delhi and all over the country. After interest had been roused he gave them *Our Flag* to read. Similarly, the teacher took advantage of the visit of an inspector from the co-operative society to get the people interested in reading more about the topic and to distribute the book.

The village library and the librarian, then, are very important links in our literacy campaigns.

FUTURE NEEDS

The most important future needs in India, in the field of literacy teaching and the production and use of reading materials, seem to be:

1. Defining a desirable and measurable standard of 'functional literacy' on the lines recommended by Dr. Gray² and creating effective machinery for the purpose. Most of the State Governments have no doubt prepared a syllabus for their adult literacy

1. Village companion, equivalent to the village level worker of the community project.

2. William S. Gray, *The Teaching of Reading and Writing*, Unesco, Paris, 1956.

courses. But in most cases no definite and measurable standards are set. The following statement in the syllabus for social (adult) education, published by the Government of Hyderabad, is typical: 'Generally an illiterate adult can be made literate in a period of 4 months if he is taught daily for 1 or 1½ hours.' But there are some methods which claim to turn an illiterate into a literate in 10 days, or even in 15 minutes!

A perusal of the syllabuses may give the impression that the standard is quite high. But the machinery created to achieve that standard is defective. A primary school teacher, with seven years of schooling and a meagre training in the theory and practice of social education, is scarcely equipped to cover the syllabus satisfactorily. He is not given much help in the shape of guide books or talking points on the topics which he has to cover. He seldom gets effective professional guidance from the supervisors. The payment is low and the method of payment unsatisfactory.

2. Evaluation of the prevalent methods of teaching reading and writing to illiterate adults in India, by putting them to use in controlled experimental classes and as a result the: (a) suggestion of improvements in the existing methods; (b) preparation of a set of basic reading materials in the light of the experiment, if found necessary; (c) development of effective methods and techniques of teaching and correlating literacy with other developmental activities. 'Literacy should never be taken up alone but should be tied up with other developmental activities' is an oft-quoted statement. But how to do it? What effect will it have upon the total period of teaching? Will adults stick to the class, if the period is long? Satisfactory answers to these questions must be found.
3. Study of the skills of adult students at various levels of literacy.
4. Study of the reading interests of new literates.
5. Evaluation of supplementary and follow-up books produced in India (especially in Hindi); enunciation of guiding principles for the production of reading materials according to Indian conditions, and the preparation of specimen materials on the lines of those principles.
6. Development of simple techniques of testing and evaluation of reading materials.
7. Evaluation of the libraries and other distributing services.
8. Preparation of a bibliography of effective basic reading materials and readable supplementary and follow-up books.
9. Evaluation of the present organization of literacy campaigns: the organizational structure of the agency, selection, training

and supervision of teachers; the selection and training of supervisors; the relation of literacy teaching to other developmental activities.

10. Literacy workshops should be organized for those who are actually engaged in preparing materials for new literates, e.g. those working in production units or with private publishers. The duration of such workshops should not be less than 3 months. The participants should be trained not only in the techniques of simple writing but in all aspects of production. Emphasis should be laid on testing and evaluation and the importance of co-operation between the author, the artist and the printer. A few artists and printers should also participate in the workshop.
11. Generally in all the capital cities of India there are at least one or two good printing presses. But small publishers can seldom engage them, as they are constantly busy and their charges are high. Hence they turn to smaller ones which have very little idea of the techniques of lay-out and good printing. The general standard of printing is likely to improve if 3-4 weeks' workshop training is organized for the smaller printers in particular.
12. Setting up a 'social education clearing house'. Its functions might be: (a) to keep the social education agencies in touch with each other's programmes and try to co-ordinate the needs of the users and the production of teaching materials; (b) to help the various research units now being set up in the country by passing on to them the results of and techniques learned in similar research work carried on elsewhere, and to keep them informed of one another's activities; (c) to bring the problems of the social education workers to the notice of research units; (d) to function as a centre of information, to which a worker might turn for any kind of information required in the course of his work.
13. The village librarians should be given at least a minimum training in librarianship. They should be trained in finding out the needs and interests and the level of reading skills of adults and should know the place and importance of libraries in social education.

If items 1-9 were taken up by an agency already established and qualified to do the job, the entire study could possibly be finished within five years.¹

1. In May 1957 the Indian Adult Education Association announced that it was now operating as the central Social Education Clearing House.

CHAPTER II

PROBLEMS AND RESOURCES IN PAKISTAN¹

This report deals with the same problems as those that confront the Government of India and reveals a similar profusion of activity in the field of literature-production, which could be improved by the operations of a co-ordinating organization staffed by persons experienced in the techniques of the production, printing and distribution of manuscripts.

Both India and Pakistan are the fortunate possessors of a rich and varied literature of which the subject matter, particularly the religious or historic, is neither unknown to the adult new literate nor removed from his thinking. The preparation of reading material for new literates in such circumstances starts with a great initial advantage. Simplifications and abridgements of the classics make an immediate appeal to the religious and cultural interests of the adult, thus demonstrating the value of the skill of literacy. It is clear from the report, however, that planning is also being done for the production of books of other types which can put into the hands of adults new knowledge about their land and its use, health and many other aspects of village life and its improvement. C.G.R.

ADULT LITERACY IN PAKISTAN

An adult literacy campaign in Pakistan raises a number of complex problems.

The need for creating enthusiasm and interest among the illiterate adults.

The need for creating enthusiasm and interest in the general public for the literacy campaign.

The scarcity of readable material for beginners—often a group of people have to share one book—and no suitable follow-up material.

The bewildering multiplicity of local languages and dialects, many

1. By IMDAD HUSAIN and SAMUEL IFTIKHAR on behalf of the Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan.

of which have never been committed to writing. In Pakistan there exist, over and above the local languages or dialects, two official languages (Urdu and Bengali), the learning of which is very important.

The general scarcity of trained teachers.

The difficulty of holding regular classes during the day, especially in farming areas where the able-bodied section of the population works in the fields.

The fact that adult education classes often have to sit on the ground when the classes are held out in the open air. In summer it becomes difficult to read and write because of the heat. In villages there is no electricity and ordinary lamps are rather inconvenient.

The lack of entertainment facilities for the rural population.

The serious psychological difficulties in teaching sensitive adults to read. For example, students laughed at by their fellow-students for making mistakes may cease coming to the classes.

Whereas communities in advanced countries may undertake activities in community organization and fundamental education on their own initiative, the same cannot be expected of the local communities of villages, towns or cities in underdeveloped countries, particularly in Asia. In Pakistan, adults in the villages are seldom conscious of a need to change their habits. Often they resist new ideas and approach new learning with diffidence. In fact, one of the hardest tasks before the adult education workers is the arousing of an awareness in adults that they can attain happy and healthy living through their own intelligent efforts.

In order to create interest in learning to read, the following lines of argument have been used in Pakistan in the past: successful students will be able to read the Holy Books; they will be able to read and write letters; they will not be cheated by the money-lenders; they will be able to understand their problems better.

None of these arguments is capable of maintaining continued interest indefinitely. In Pakistan the religious incentive is quite legitimate for creating enthusiasm but, as has been observed, 'A man learns best when his interests are keenest; and his immediate needs determine his interests'.

The first need in an adult education programme, therefore, is to demonstrate the practical value of education and provide an incentive for further learning. There is also a need to break down public diffidence and indifference. This can best be done by integrating literacy work with other programmes. The Government of Pakistan is aware of the fact that mere literacy will fail in its

purpose, and the literacy programme has wisely been dovetailed with the Village Agricultural Industrial Development Programme (Village AID) being administered by the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The Village AID Administration is struggling to interest the villager in taking a share in building his own unit. The object is to initiate a process of development which will raise living standards and open out to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life. It thus involves not only education of the rural people in determining their problems and methods of solving them, but also inspiring them towards positive action in doing so.

In this connexion Unesco made the following recommendations: 'In the early stages it may be best to concentrate on solving some urgent community problems; for example, to eliminate an endemic disease by a health campaign or to make a marked improvement in crop yields, by introducing a new method in agriculture.'¹ For such work trained workers are needed, to organize and to help people to help themselves. Such workers will have considerable educative work to do in order to awaken the people to their higher interests. The whole programme will have to be explained to them and their local share clearly specified.

Another important factor is the training of teachers. Experience has shown that it is possible to teach adults the rudiments of reading and writing in a relatively short period by means of some popular methods such as the 'Key-word Method', or Dr. Laubach's 'Association Picture Method', which is a combination of the synthetic and global methods. For this purpose it is necessary to train teachers in the methodology, psychology and organization of adult education. One of the main causes of the failure of literacy campaigns in this country was that the people who were expected to teach the adults were primary school teachers. For psychological reasons quite a different approach is necessary for adults. Teachers of the right type are needed who will take to their work with zeal and enthusiasm. People from village surroundings are likely to prove of special value in this respect.

In the light of the above observations it will be pertinent to mention here that in the Five-Year Plan proposed by the Village AID Administration, due place has been given to adult literacy, training of teachers and production of suitable literature. Nine training centres have so far been established under this programme with the help of the International Co-operation Administration

1. *Fundamental Education: Description and Programme*, Paris, Unesco, 1950, p. 19-20.

(ICA) and the Ford Foundation. The Ministry of Education has been instrumental in eliciting technical help from Unesco for improving the literacy aspect of the programme and two Unesco experts have already arrived. Two main centres, one each in East and West Pakistan at Tejgaon and Lalamusa respectively, are expected¹ to undertake training of literacy teachers and production of suitable literature under the supervision and guidance of these experts. It is hoped that within five years one-fourth of the country will benefit from the Village AID programme.

More training facilities will have to be provided. It is gratifying to note that other organizations, such as the All Pakistan Women's Association, Social Welfare Project, All Pakistan Literacy Association and YMCA, are also giving short courses in literacy techniques.

The Problem of Dialects

The problem of multiplicity of dialects offers a barrier to effective literacy drives, especially when the dialects have no written script. It may then be necessary to start educational work with methods which do not demand literacy, such as discussion or demonstration, or the use of film and radio. Where there is a written script such as Punjabi or Sindhi, the decision on what should be taught first (the official language or the local one) depends on local conditions, but it may also involve government policy. In this case the following educational principles need to be kept in mind before deciding one way or the other.²

Both children and adults learn best in their mother tongue; if the mother tongue is too primitive to carry the load of education for life in the modern world, a more advanced language (the local language of culture or a regional auxiliary language) can be taught and introduced for practical use as soon as possible. It may be necessary to begin fundamental education by oral and visual means, and to defer literacy teaching until the mother tongue is codified, or until a suitable auxiliary language is brought into use.

The choice of a regional auxiliary language, whether as a medium for literacy or simply as a means of communication with neighbouring peoples, should be governed not only by local convenience but also by the ideal of fundamental education to promote international understanding and the solidarity of the

1. The course at Lalamusa, assisted by Unesco experts, began such training in 1957. [Ed.]

2. *Fundamental Education: Description and Programme*, Paris, Unesco, 1950, p. 36.

human race. The selection of an auxiliary language with the widest possible field of usefulness—a world language as against a purely local one—will therefore commend itself.

The Relation of Literature Production to Adult Needs

The above observations emphasize the need of producing material for adults which will answer some of their problems and meet some of their pressing needs in everyday life. Most of the literacy material in existence in Pakistan at present lacks this approach. It is unrelated to the everyday need of adult readers, and lacks useful practical information which may serve to improve their professional skill and thus help them to increase their income. The adult finds no immediate solution to his daily problems and no immediate reward for his efforts to learn. All this stifles his interest and he finds no incentive to continue his efforts to become literate.

The question what should be the content of a literacy programme needs careful research. A full programme of adult education should supply the adult with 'remedial education, chiefly in literacy skills; occupational education with direct bearing on productivity and living standards; health training, both personal and public; recreational education for the fuller use of leisure; liberal education, by helping adults to acquire knowledge and understanding of a disinterested character in such fields as language, art, science and history.'¹

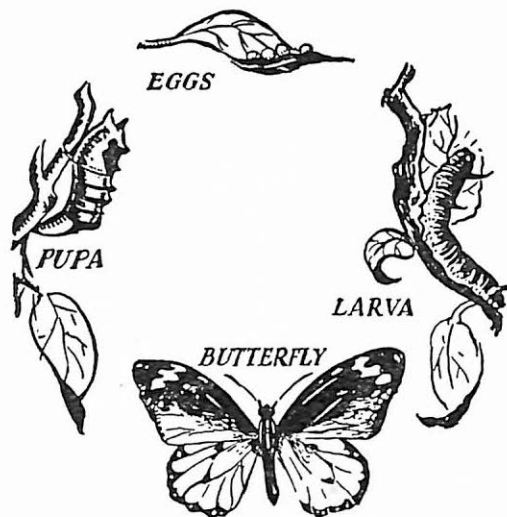
What the people want and need is a matter of investigation, study and observation. No literature can be apt, useful or effective if the basic religious, economic, social, cultural and attitudinal data are wanting. Local opinion about the usefulness of the literature is an important criterion in its evaluation. The confidence of the villagers is won with difficulty and easily lost. It is, therefore, important that a start be made with a subject whose usefulness to the villagers in increasing their income is well established.

The *fundamental problem* is the paucity of suitable literature for neo-literates.

EXISTING MATERIAL

We give below brief analyses and a critical review of some of the adult literacy materials available in Pakistan.²

1. *Fundamental Education: Description and Programme*, Paris, Unesco, 1950, p. 20.
2. Descriptions of primers have been omitted. [C.G.R.]



3.



4.

Figs. 3 and 4. Illustrations range from descriptive drawings which must be quite accurate to drawings which are meant primarily to stir the reader's emotions.

[3] W. H. Turnbull, *How to Grow Better Crops*, London, Cape Town, Longmans Green, 1949.

[4] Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, *El Alcoholismo*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1955.

Cambia el carácter de Luis.

Dana Iqbal. Adapted and translated into Urdu by Samuel Iftikhar, from Dr. Laubach's book *Anand, The Wise Man*, and published by the Punjab Religious Book Society, 1954, 40 p., price 2 annas. Page size 8×6.8 inches, length of line 5.4 inches, 2 lines to an inch, 15 lines to full page. Heavy paper cover, wire-stitch binding. Printed by litho process. Twelve line illustrations in colour, each 2×2 inches.

Intended to serve as a follow-up to a primer (*Ilm Ki Ainak*) based on Dr. Laubach's latest eclectic method, this book contains short stories on health and agriculture. The text and illustrations were not tested during production.

The vocabulary is controlled by a basic word-list prepared by the adapter and the book has been carefully graded. Ten or twelve words are used in each chapter and each word is repeated four or five times. At the end of each chapter there is a list of new words and the gist of the story is given in one long sentence using all the new words. Adults need more books of this type.

The illustrations are very well produced and the one on the cover page explains the purpose of the book. The book has been revised in the light of modifications suggested by the users. The Village AID workers are finding it very pertinent to village needs.

Andhe Ki Kanani. Written by Mufti Iqbal Ahmed, Assistant Inspector of Schools, Gujrat, and published in Urdu by the Punjab Education Department, 1941, 50 p. Supplied free to literacy students as a follow-up book. Page size 8.2×6.9 inches, length of line 5 inches, 3 lines to an inch, 16 lines to full page. Heavy paper cover, wire-stitch binding. Printed by litho process.

This book (the story of a blind man) is written in dialogue form and its purpose is to encourage adults to read and to teach others. It also deals with a number of bad practices which are based on ignorance and illiteracy. The technique of teaching is to use short stories and parables with a moral.

The text was not tested during production but an attempt has been made to avoid difficult words. The book is interesting and very well printed, and is considered one of the best publications for new literates.

Bhai Ki Rawadari. Written and published in Urdu by the Diamond Book Depot Publishers, 153 p., price 4 annas. Page size 6.8×4.8 inches, length of line 3.8 inches, 3 lines to an inch, 15 lines to full page of text. Paper cover and wire-stitch binding. Printed by litho process.

This is a work of fiction and contains rich imaginative material.

The purpose is to entertain, but the story also teaches moral virtues such as loyalty to parents, helping others, etc. The text was not tested during production, but it is written in easy language. The book is interesting and readable; adults like it but it is more suited for children. It is a little too voluminous for new literates and is apt to tax the patience of beginners.

Sunehri Zindgi. Written by Miss P. T. Ram, revised by Samuel Iftikhar, and published in Urdu by Punjab Religious Books Society, 1953, 40 p., price 3 annas. Page size 9.4×7.2 inches, length of line 6 inches, 2 lines to an inch, 17 lines to full page. Heavy paper cover and wire-stitch binding. No illustrations.

The book is intended to serve as follow-up literature for literacy students. The lessons teach the adults, through short stories, the importance of self-reliance and co-operative effort in the improvement of rural life. Each story is short and simple and brings out one important point. A problem relating to everyday life is stated and then a solution is suggested. The characters in the story are local.

The text was not tested during production, but simple and common words have been used throughout. There are about 200 different words and each is used at least five times. The book has proved popular with adults.

Mirza Sahiban. Adaptation of a local legend by Dr. A. Wahid, published in Urdu by Messrs. Ferozesons, 1941, price 1 anna 10 pies. Page size 8.3×6.1 inches, length of line 4.1 inches, 15 lines to full page. Heavy paper cover and wire-stitch binding.

This book is a good example of how popular stories (in this case a love story) can be used to induce adults to read. The text was not tested during production but is in simple Urdu. The printing is very clear and well spaced, and good paper has been used.

Islam Ke Mujahid. Adapted by Asghar Hussain Khan and published in Urdu by the Punjab Book Agency, Lahore, 1953, 56 p. Page size 7×5 inches, length of line 3.6 inches, 4 lines to an inch, 19 lines to full page. Imitation art paper cover, wire-stitch binding.

Intended to serve as a library book for adult readers, this publication contains 12 selected bibliographical sketches of Moslem heroes, arranged in two volumes. From the standpoint of vocabulary the book is not suitable for beginners, but its contents are liked by adults in general. The book is badly printed and the paper inferior. There are no illustrations. The text was not tested during production but it is in simple language.

Ilm Ki Chabi. Adapted by Jalal Din and Hans Raj and published by Mashael Press, Kharar, 1938, 40 p., price 2 annas 3 pies. Page size 10.8×8.13 inches, length of line 5 to 6 inches, 1 line to an inch, 8 lines to full page. Heavy paper cover, wire-stitch binding; 23 illustrations (largely black and white; line drawings, size 2×4 inches).

This first reader contains short tales and legends, linked up into a continuous story which holds the attention through successive lessons. The text was tested during production but not the illustrations. Four new characters are taught in each lesson and new words are repeated at least four times. The additional content includes questions to test comprehension and explanatory notes. At the end of each lesson there is usually some word-drill and an exercise to give practice in writing.

Although the paper used is of inferior quality and the illustrations poorly done the printing is clear and well spaced and the book has a good binding.

Puran Bhagat. Adapted by Qazi Ikram Hussain from a local legend and published in Urdu by the Punjab Education Department, 1947, 48 p., free. Page size 7.2×4.14 inches, length of line 3.8 inches, 2 lines to an inch, 12 lines to a full page. Heavy paper cover, wire-stitch binding.

Intended for independent reading, this book is another example of how popular stories of religious heroes can provide reading material for new literates. Adults like it because they are familiar with the story. The book imparts moral lessons and also explains some of the superstitions connected with Puran Bhagat and his famous well.

The text was not tested during publication but difficult words have been avoided. The language is simple and the presentation easy. There is no pictorial material.

Barader Lekha Parha. Written by Syed Amir-ul-Islam and published in Bengali by the Education Department, East Pakistan, 1950, 40 p., price 8 annas. Page size 7.2×4.3 inches, length of line 3.8 inches, 19 lines to full page. Ordinary white printing paper cover, thread-stitch binding. Illustrations.

This first reader for literacy students is divided into 22 chapters. In each of the first 9 chapters, 5 letters are taught. Using only these letters 2- or 3-syllable words are made; then a few short and simple sentences are given to explain the illustration. A good attempt has been made to teach the recognition of the sound of each letter.

The second part of the book contains biographical sketches of national heroes and religious leaders, poems on topics such as farming, the motherland, the beauty of a village, etc. On the last few pages are listed the names of the days, months and seasons, and also multiplication tables.

The book is too voluminous to serve as a primer. The writer begins with short and simple words, but in the following chapters more difficult vocabulary is used, taxing the capacity of the beginner. The book has been found more suitable for children than for adults.

The text of the publication was not tested during production. There are 8 illustrations which do not seem to have been tested either.

Leaflets and other material. Apart from the above literature, leaflets written specifically for adult use also exist. These leaflets, produced by the teachers and students of the Teachers' Training School, Gukhar, and published by S. M. Shah Wali Yamini, Headmaster, Training School, Gukhar, and L. Sohan Lal, Lahore, in Urdu are based on original texts. Several authors are responsible for these leaflets. They have not been well graded but the language is quite simple. The length of each line is 5.3 inches and there are 11 lines to a full page of text. These leaflets are very handy, the language is simple, problems dealt with are very relevant, such as cleanliness, prevention of diseases, importance of literacy, ventilation, pure drinking water, adult franchise. Leaflets have been found to be very effective in mass education in other countries, and they are inexpensive to produce. The Village AID Administration has recently produced some attractive ones on health, agriculture and education.

Generally the follow-up material is voluminous and 'heavy', and therefore somewhat discouraging. If less voluminous primers and books were placed in the hands of new literates, they could read these more quickly and have a sense of achievement. Just as long sentences discourage the readers, voluminous books easily frustrate them. Books for new literates not only need to be easy and well graded but smaller in size as well.¹

1. This is generally true in relation to materials for fundamental education schemes, but where the motive to read exists neither size nor length are found to be intimidating. For instance, from the early days of the Christian missionary movement until the present time newly literate church adherents have been, and are, eager to buy the Bible or parts of the Bible in their own language and are devoted in reading it, in spite of the fact that the format of these publications does not usually conform to expert specifications. Distributors of the scriptures of other faiths seem to have noted this also. The modern technical expert in 'functional literacy' may have doubts however as to the new literate's comprehension of what he reads in such circumstances. [C.G.R.]

There is a great need to study the language spoken by labourers, peasants, shopkeepers, soldiers, etc; very often writers for new literates are ashamed of using colloquialisms and the everyday speech of the common people. Some of the literature reviewed above shows unnecessary linguistic sophistication.

A great deal of the existing material is also faulty from the technical standpoint, e.g., the type is not bold enough for the adult new literates, or there is not an adequate division of the material into short paragraphs.

In Bengali, some adult educationalists such as Mr. Bivar and his associates are preparing new literature. Similarly, in Sindhi and Pushtu, charts and primers have been attempted on the 'association picture' method. It is expected that before long these will be printed.

CULTURAL RESOURCES AVAILABLE

Although there is a scarcity of printing machinery and material in Pakistan, there is no lack of talented artists and writers. The Government of Pakistan has decided to give literacy an important place in its Village AID Programme, and adequate funds have been set aside for this very important task. Apart from national resources, there are certain external agencies, such as Unesco, the Asia Foundation and ICA., who are keen to help in literacy projects. They have placed their material and advisory services at the disposal of Pakistan. These foreign agencies are also co-ordinating their efforts and lending help to the private organizations in the country.

Pakistan has inherited a rich cultural tradition which can provide a tremendous amount of material for new literates. Songs and folklore which can be used are already in existence in Urdu, Bengali, Sindhi, Pushtu and Punjabi (Persian script). People already know a great part of this literature by heart, although they cannot read and write. There are proverbs in all the Pakistani languages relating to village life and to the life of the people; these can be adapted to provide literature for adults.

One of the vital interests of the people of Pakistan is religion. There is an inexhaustible store of religious traditions, stories, songs, customs and other material which can be embodied advantageously in many forms of simple writing. There is already a great deal of written material pertaining to religion available in Pakistan; this can be adapted and modified for use with new literates. Below are given a few specimens of such material.

Bahishti Zever (Celestial Ornaments). Written by Maulana Ashraf Ali Thanwee and published by Ghulam Ali and Sons, Kashmiri Bazaar, Lahore, and Messrs. Ferozesons, this popular work meant for women readers is in eleven volumes, each dealing with a topic such as religious piety, education of women, performance of the religious rites, divorce, domestic affairs and other problems. This is considered to be an indispensable book for the education of Moslem women in Pakistan.

Tarikh-E-Islam (History of Islam). This book in two volumes is by Abdullah Qureshi and published by Sh. Barkat Ali and Sons, Lahore. It traces the history of Islam, dealing particularly with the religious, political and social aspects. A great deal of material in it can be adapted for the use of new literates.

Tazkrat-Ul-Aulia (Memories of Moslem Saints). This is an Urdu translation of the famous book by the Persian writer Sh. Farid-ud-Din Attar. Written in very simple Urdu, it is published by Messrs. Ghulam Ali and Sons. It contains fascinating descriptions of the Moslem saints, and is beautifully produced.

Hir Warris Shah. A well-known classic of Punjabi poetry written by Mian Warris Shah. Although a love story, it is a philosophic interpretation of human aspiration, love, failings, pain, sorrow, hopes and fears. It also holds a mirror up to Punjabi ways and customs. This book is popular in the whole of Punjab (both East and West), and illiterate villagers know several verses by heart and sing these with gusto. Both listeners and readers of these verses identify themselves with the characters. It is the desire of every Punjabi villager in youth to be able to read the *Hir* of Warris Shah.

Hamara Quaid (Our Leader). This well-known book by Z. A. Suleri is popular in the whole of Pakistan, because it deals with the life of Mohammed Ali Jinnah, the founder of the country. Like any other book it can be adapted for the use of new literates.

Puthis. There are more than 1,000 volumes of *puthis* written in simple Bengali, and printed in bold type. Most of the nouns and adjectives used in the *puthis* are either Arabic or Persian. These *puthis* deal with Moslem theology, lives of Moslem heroes, anecdotes from Islamic history and romantic tales from various Islamic cultures such as Egyptian, Iranian, and Arabic.

There are numerous other books which can be adapted, abridged, modified and simplified for new literates.

PRINTING PROBLEMS

Paper

Publishers find the task of producing standard, inexpensive and popular books hampered by the shortage of paper, printing and binding material for books. The paper industry in the country is quite new and the locally manufactured paper does not come up to the required standards. The paper mills of Karnaphully and Chanderguna are making every effort to meet the needs, but since they are in a process of development the quality and quantity of the paper produced is still unsatisfactory, and prices are also rather high. It is expected that conditions will improve and better facilities for printing will soon be available.

In the same way newsprint, which is scarce at present, is expected to be made available in larger quantities and at cheaper rates in the near future. Such restrictions as exist on newsprint today may be relaxed by the government in favour of a national centre for production of literature for new literates.

Machinery and Training

Similarly there is a dearth of machinery and spare parts for presses, owing to the limited foreign exchange resources.

The development of printing and the graphic arts, and the provision of scholarships to enable writers, artists, printers and editors to have training abroad, also need the government's attention. It is encouraging to note that some of the leading publishing houses have taken the initiative in securing overseas training of their own personnel.

A great majority of persons employed in printing establishments are illiterate. Because of this illiteracy a great deal of time is wasted in proof-reading and attending to other technical and non-technical details. In several instances the publishers also are not very well educated.

Litho-printing, which is common, wastes too much time, owing to its dependence on the human element. In this age, when fast distribution of intellectual goods is essential for national progress and development, too much dependence on litho-printing is a great disadvantage.

Inks and Block-making

The quality of litho and calligraphy inks available in Pakistan is not

good enough. Formerly, calligraphic ink was imported. Colour inks imported from abroad are in short supply and hardly sufficient for distribution amongst all the publishers. Prices are again high.

Because of the acute paucity of first-rate artists, calligraphers and block-makers, their services are expensive and only well-to-do printers and organizations can afford to hire them. This contributes to the high price of books.

Calligraphy

As observed by the Unesco Fundamental Education Mission to Pakistan, the old system of writing everything by hand on litho blocks is an anachronism. Each book must be produced entirely by one calligrapher, so that there will be no variation in the handwriting. If he falls sick the work is delayed, and even the corrections after proof-reading must be made by the same man. This difficulty can only be overcome by changing from Nastaliq to Naskh script. Official opinion appears to be in favour of this change, and more and more government publications and textbooks are being printed in Naskh. The fundamental education programme would give an ideal opportunity to the government and other organizations to popularize the Naskh script.

DISTRIBUTION AND LIBRARY SERVICES

Since library services in Pakistan are as yet in their incipient stages, their contribution to the adult literacy movement is insignificant. The question of distribution, therefore, needs thorough investigation. It is no use in producing literacy material without guaranteeing its continuous availability to the new literates who need to be fed almost every day with fresh intellectual food to maintain their interest. In Pakistan, villages are often situated at a considerable distance from each other and the means of communications are limited. There are very few libraries in the villages; sometimes one village caters to the needs of others nearby. Generally the cities are expected to supply the needs of surrounding rural areas. Another problem is lack of personnel. There are not enough people to go around distributing materials and literature to the new literates. Often one person is expected to distribute materials in too large an area. There is need of an army of distributors reaching people even in the remotest areas. There being no mobile libraries in Pakistan, and the post being an unsatisfactory means of distribution, one has to fall back on the individual effort of workers in the field.

In general the greater part of the distribution is done by the publishers themselves. They supply the books to the booksellers, who sell them to the customers. Often some commission agents take these books from the publishers and sell them. In some cases they leave these books with the villagers, who pay them in cash or in kind at the time of the harvest.

Distribution of literature for new literates has been done also through the inspectors of schools. The Education Department get books, not particularly written for adults, from publishers and give these to inspectors of village schools. Sometimes the publishers were asked to send books directly to the inspectors, who were expected to distribute them during their tours of the villages. The inspectors left the books with the headmasters, who were supposed to pass them on to the teachers in charge of the literacy work. In many villages where there were no primary schools, a mosque was used as a literacy centre and a *mullah* as a literacy teacher. The *mullah* used to go to the headmaster of the nearby school and get the books. This system still prevails in certain parts of Pakistan.

In addition to the distribution work done by the Education Department, literacy workers of private organizations also take these books out for sale. Sometimes the Village AID workers collect the books from the headquarters of these organizations. In certain areas of Pakistan, such as the Punjab and the North-West Frontier region, the task of literacy and distribution of materials was taken over by the police. This worked quite satisfactorily.

All this shows that in the past the distribution of literacy materials for adults has not been very satisfactory, but the Village AID authorities in Pakistan have plans to tackle the problem by using more and better trained personnel. The Village AID staff also have better means of transportation—the mobile units at their disposal are trying to reach the maximum number of people with literacy and other materials. It is hoped that the Village AID plans will provide a stimulus to other agencies, such as the All Pakistan Women's Association, All Pakistan Adult Literacy Association, Social Welfare Project, Association of Social Workers.

The Village AID Administration has decided to adopt the 'Tin Box' library system for the villages, which has proved its usefulness in certain other countries¹

1. See page 33.

TASTES AND SUBJECT PREFERENCES OF NEW LITERATES

Need for Research

There has been no systematic and scientific research conducted into the tastes and subject preferences of new literates in Pakistan. But people who work in adult literacy and allied fields are in a position to provide useful information on the subject.

The rural population of Pakistan differs from the urban population in its subject preferences; therefore, materials meant for the urban people do not meet the needs of rural people. Another important consideration is that of localizing the material production in the light of the languages, customs and culture of various regions. It has been discovered through long experience that materials are worthless unless they are relevant to local conditions. For instance, rural people are interested not so much in international news as in certain kinds of local news, with local interpretation, tied to national and local interests and events. The use of local people and local names is more effective and more easily understandable. News on the national and international level becomes more interesting and significant when it is interpreted in a local form and in terms of home needs.

Categories of Literature Needed

The specific subjects liked by the village population fall into several categories.

Agricultural. Ninety per cent of Pakistan's population is rural; therefore, reading material is appreciated if it deals with agricultural problems such as soil conservation, tree planting, irrigation, fertilization, domestic skills, husbandry, scientific methods of producing higher yields of crops, fertilizers, manures, plant and animal diseases, better cattle, improved implements. Also such subjects as the weather, forests, insects, crop diseases, agricultural products, fluctuation of market prices and the general problems of an agricultural economy.

Pakistan has a coastline of 740 miles and fishing is an important occupation. Materials giving information about fishing, equipment, breeding, and protection of fishing grounds will naturally be of interest.

Religious and moral. Pakistan is a Moslem country and religion is a matter of vital concern for a majority of its population. Stories

of prophets, religious thinkers and saints are popular with all adults, as are moral and religious subjects, provided they are presented in an interesting way. Workers in adult literacy and Village AID are already making use of the religious interests of the people to produce literacy materials.

Cultural. Pakistan possesses a rich cultural heritage. Its people are proud of their history, culture and ways of life. In the villages, folklore and traditions, indigenous rituals and customs are the basis of a strong community life. This folklore and these traditions have been handed down from generation to generation. Even illiterate people remember religious stories, poems, folklore and legends and can narrate them at a moment's notice. Any material of this nature is bound to be of great interest to the people. This important point had already been realized by the leaders in Pakistan, and sociologists have done a great deal in bringing home this point to all those who are connected with the task of educating the Asian countries. Materials produced for rural consumption will be of no interest to the people if they are not linked with the cultural condition of the country.

Health and sanitation. Poor health is a very serious problem in Pakistan. Among the major causes are contaminated drinking water; pollution of tanks, soil and surroundings with night-soil and animal dung; insect carriers of diseases; lack of adequate and nutritious diet; and inadequate ventilation of houses. A high percentage of the population suffers from one disease or another. Yet the very filth that causes diseases can be used, for example, to make compost, resulting in less illness and more crops at the same time. The people are naturally curious and have a great desire to avoid ill-health and poverty. What they require is guidance. Much of the illness and poverty can be prevented by the people themselves, if they are given information and help through the medium of printed material. The following subjects have been found to interest adults: pure drinking water, mosquitoes, itch, sore eyes, ventilation, village sanitation, epidemic diseases, domestic science, wholesome food.

Recreational. The people of Pakistan have a good sense of humour. There exists a large stock of funny stories, comic poems and anecdotes. On festive occasions one witnesses community singing, musical parties, dramatization, and entertaining performances by professionals. Urdu literature is replete with material of an entertaining nature, but unfortunately its use is restricted to highly

educated people. There is plenty of scope for producing material for entertainment of the masses. Such material can take the form of short stories, poems, anecdotes, quizzes, short plays, comic strips, etc.

Social, informational and vocational. Villagers have also a great sense of curiosity. Modern inventions like the radio, the telephone and the cinema are looked at with great wonder. Modern methods of agriculture, and modern medical practices, are a source of great attraction. These inventions have already begun to influence the lives of the people. It is high time that this element of curiosity be made use of to inform and educate the villagers. Applied science can be taught by means of simple and attractive reading material.

The social and general informational subjects which have been found to appeal to adults include: marriage problems, superstitions, family economics, citizenship, voting and its importance, government, lives of great men of all nations, scientific advances.

The Needs of Women

Tastes differ according to sex and age, and reading matter suitable for male adults may not always meet the needs of women. Subjects of interest to women include: house cleaning; meal planning and preparation; making, mending and washing of children's and adults' clothing; domestic science; thrift; stories of great women; child care and child psychology; what a pregnant woman should eat; home nursing; religious education; cottage industries; family relations; preparation of pickles, chutneys, jams, etc.

Some women writers are already trying to produce material suitable for women along the above lines.

Summary

The foregoing observations are based on the wide experience of local workers in the field of adult literacy over a long period of time. They are not the outcome of systematic and scientific research. The need for such research cannot, however, be over-emphasized. It is time that educationalists in Pakistan undertook such research projects. Without an adequate knowledge of the tastes and subject preferences of adults, readable material is very difficult to produce. It is hoped that Village AID authorities will include research along these lines as an essential part of their programme.

MATERIAL PRODUCING AGENCIES

There are five agencies which publish literature for new literates, namely the Education Department, West Pakistan; the Education Department, East Pakistan; Punjab Religious Book Society; Messrs. Ferozsons; and the Ansar Organization. Their efforts are commendable, but fail to solve the huge problem of production of literature for new literates.

The Village AID administration is expected to tackle this problem, to some extent with the help of the Education Ministry. Two Village AID centres, one in each wing of Pakistan, operating their self-contained presses and with their own technical experts, are expected to produce reading material in sufficiently large quantity on relevant subjects for adult readers.

The Ministries of Health, Food and Agriculture also have produced leaflets, booklets and brochures of different types, as well as posters with pictures, which although not produced specifically for new literates can be adapted for such use.

To avoid waste and overlapping there is obvious need for co-ordination between the various agencies producing such literature. Co-ordinated effort would be far more effective than all the scattered efforts carried out by each department independently. There is need also on the part of the departmental writers to learn new techniques.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A systematic survey of the tastes and subject-preferences of adults needs to be made. Since such fact-finding cannot be done by the official agencies alone, university departments and voluntary organizations all over Pakistan should be intelligently used to get such information as to people's needs, tastes and subject preferences. It will be worth the time and money of the Village AID authorities to launch such a project. This research should be carried out in all linguistic regions separately. As tastes differ according to sex and age, separate books for women readers have to be prepared. The list of subjects for both men and women given above may prove helpful.

The government and social agencies should co-ordinate their efforts in producing reading material for new literates, in order to avoid wastage and overlapping. It may be possible to appoint a board representing all the agencies concerned with literacy and reading material, including government agencies. Unesco and

World Literacy Incorporated might be able to render advice, equipment and other services to this national organization.

In view of the urgency of the problem, more training facilities should be provided; it may be possible to expand the two main Village AID centres at Lalamusa and Tejgaon in order to cater for such needs. Each of these centres could be furnished with a self-contained printing press so that the literature might be produced in the required form. The press section should include all the equipment needed to produce the right type of literature for adults—functional, attractive and in bold type, accurate and properly illustrated. There should be sufficient staff to produce the literature, evaluate the material and train people in literacy techniques.

Arrangements should be made for the publication of an attractive weekly newspaper for each linguistic region. These newspapers should be produced on a controlled vocabulary. They should contain articles of a religious and vocational nature, articles on health and sanitation, social welfare and general information, and recreational matter. The responsibility for such papers might be taken by the staff of the two above-mentioned centres. To begin with, each paper might have different grade sections.

Careful selection should be made of the existing reading material, and arrangements made at these centres for their publication in modified and simplified form appropriate for adults.

Dr. Laubach's latest eclectic method, combining the best of the story and phonetic methods, is by far the best known in Pakistan and has a good chance of success. This method may be further tried out, but there should also be plenty of opportunity to experiment with other methods. It may be suggested that the primer *Ilm Ki Ainak* be printed in a revised form in large quantities.

The services of able writers, sensitive to the needs and language of new literate adults, should be secured for the writing of such reading material. These writers may be invited to submit their manuscripts to the experts in the field. To provide an incentive, prizes might be instituted.

The production of more and more leaflets should be encouraged through the two centres. The teacher-training institutions may also help in putting out the leaflets.

The work of production of reading material for new literates should be encouraged by providing facilities for paper, cardboard, ink and other accessories. It may be possible for the government to lift restrictions on the supply of cheap quality paper specifically for the production of reading material for new literates.

In order to give value to the books and a sense of ownership to

the adults, the primers and follow-up literature should be sold and not given away free. It may, however, be desirable to subsidize such literature to bring the prices within the reach of all. Foreign agencies might be approached to help in subsidizing literature for new literates.

The fundamental education programme affords an ideal opportunity to the government and other organizations to popularize the Naskh script, which will solve certain technical problems. It may be possible to produce all reading material for beginners in Naskh. The need of changing from Nastaliq to Naskh has been briefly discussed on page 53.

There is need for a systematic and more satisfactory method for the continuous flow and distribution of literacy reading material. It should be made available at the lowest possible price at several places, e.g., in markets, villages and mosques. The Village AID Administration, and social welfare agencies such as the Social Welfare Project, All Pakistan Women's Association and Pakistan Conference of Social Workers should help to see that the literature for new literates, once produced, is put to proper use. It may be possible at a later stage to expect the board whose constitution has been suggested to look into the proper distribution of the literacy material.

Facilities should be provided for the training of writers, printers, artists and publishers. It would also be desirable to send at least two Pakistanis, one from each wing, to an appropriate school of journalism abroad for one year's special training.

Small libraries should be set up in as many villages as possible. A library can be located in one of the rooms annexed to the mosque or in a community house. A room in one of the school buildings might be used for the library. Efforts should also be made to set up mobile libraries.

The use of audio-visual aids such as filmstrips, charts, etc., should be encouraged. It may be possible to supply each village literacy centre with a battery radio-set and a projector. At least half-an-hour's programme on the radio for literacy students would be desirable.

Experience shows that children who attend school and leave at the end of four years have frequently forgotten how to read by the time they grow up. Therefore the only really effective way of abolishing illiteracy is by setting up schools for adults. Provided we are content not to aim too high, it should be possible to achieve results with the adult population by imparting to them a few useful practical lessons and seeing that they are thoroughly

absorbed. The important thing is that the adult, having discovered that reading is useful, shall at least be inspired from then on to demand that his children be educated.

Suitable literature at a mature level is necessary not only for adults who have been made literate, but also for those hundreds of boys and girls who are given primary education but who, because they are unable to exercise the reading skills they have acquired, relapse into illiteracy soon after leaving school.

CHAPTER III

PRODUCTION OF READING MATERIALS IN CEYLON¹

From this paper it appears that the Ceylon Government has begun to produce educational material for new literate adults and that there already exists an indigenous colportage system for the sale of popular 'ballad literature', the demand for which is sufficient to have aroused the interest of a commercial firm.

The evidence given in this paper of an established popular demand for inexpensive booklets and of the existence of an indigenous distribution system suggests the advisability of the setting up by the Ceylon Government of a small editorial and manuscript production unit, to produce the educational texts required as part of the adult education programme; these texts could then be supplied to the printing and publishing firms for production and for distribution through the existing channels. C.G.R.

LITERACY TEACHING, ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

In Ceylon, adult education does not aim at the mere eradication of illiteracy. Official statistics of the Department of Census and Statistics reveal that in 1946 the literacy figures for the population of Ceylon was males 70.1 per cent, females 43.7 per cent (average 56.9 per cent). The situation should be even better now, ten years later; although the 1952 census figures are not available yet, it can be safely estimated at about 75 per cent. Compared with those of other underdeveloped areas in Asia these literacy figures for Ceylon are very good.

Adult education in Ceylon seeks chiefly to enable the rural masses to apply themselves better to the problems of food production, employ their leisure profitably, enjoy better health, and fulfil their obligations as useful citizens. It also seeks to raise the true level of literacy, since the statistics quoted above often indicate a very elementary type of literacy. Even though the figures show that a good percentage of the population can read a simple

1. Paper submitted by the Ceylon participants at the Murree meeting of experts.

message or write a simple letter they are not fully literate as we normally understand the term.

History of the Literacy Movement

From very early times educational institutions known as 'pirivenas' were conducted at all the bigger Buddhist temples in this country. They were the original seats of culture and learning in Ceylon, and through them the monks endeavoured to impart to adults in rural areas instruction in religion, philosophy and Oriental languages. Foreign rule and the introduction of a foreign language of administration were partly responsible for preventing these institutions from attaining the importance they might otherwise have assumed—they have nevertheless attempted to preserve and disseminate the culture, tradition and learning that were the heritage of a glorious past.

About fifty years ago the night school movement, specially meant for the education of adults, was started by the Education Department on a grant-in-aid basis. But since the general desire at that time was for the study of English, these schools did not help to solve the problem of rural illiteracy as they were attended only by those desiring to learn English in order to secure employment in the towns.

In 1944 the Education Department began to establish adult literacy classes in rural schools. These classes were conducted in the evenings by teachers of day schools, under the supervision of the inspectors. In 1945 the scope of these classes was widened by the introduction of audio-visual aids. Radio sets were installed in certain remote areas and cinema vans were sent touring the island exhibiting films of general interest to rural adults.

The year 1948 was marked by the opening of an entirely new type of adult centre at which not only literacy classes but other recreational facilities—for games, reading, music and drama—were provided. In the same year the Department of Rural Development was set up for the purpose of co-ordinating all activities conducted in the villages by various government departments and for promoting the general welfare of the rural adult.

The Position Today

Pirivenas. There are now 74 senior and 66 junior pirivenas conducted at Buddhist temples in various parts of the country. The senior pirivenas impart instruction in religion, philosophy and the Indo-Aryan languages. The junior pirivenas, meant for younger

adults from 15 to 20 years of age, teach general subjects such as history, geography and arithmetic as well. The work of these pirivenas is regularly scrutinized by special inspectors appointed by the Education Department and they are given annual grants based on units of average attendance. Nearly 3,000 adults attend pirivenas and more rural adults are being attracted to these historic centres of learning and culture.

Night schools. Twenty-seven registered night schools conducted on a grant-in-aid system, which is based on average attendance, cater for the needs of adult workers who have not had the opportunity of continuing their school education up to an adequate standard. The number of adults attending these night schools is estimated at 1,300.

Adult literacy classes and adult education centres. With the introduction of the Rural Development Movement in 1948, there has been an increasing demand for adult literacy classes by the rural development societies formed in the villages. The attendance at these classes is nearly 3,500 and much keenness and enthusiasm are displayed. Besides these classes, the Education Department has established adult education centres in rural areas. The activities at these centres include, besides literacy and educational classes, courses in citizenship and civics on a prescribed syllabus, talks and illustrated lectures on health, agriculture and other topics of general interest to the villager, library and reading room facilities, indoor and outdoor games, music and drama, radio music and talks, cinema and filmstrip shows, and so on. The main object of these centres is to train the rural adult in the art of citizenship and to teach him ways in which he can occupy the leisure at his disposal in pleasurable and profitable activity. It is hoped by this means not only to reduce the incidence of idleness and crime in the villages, but also to produce citizens who will be able to grow with their community and make a contribution to it. A centre recently opened at the workers' housing estate at Kotelawalapura is both successful and popular. Centres have also been started at the various colonization schemes in different parts of the country. By arrangement with the Ministry of Education, Unesco gave assistance to a pilot project in fundamental education at Minneriya.

Audio-visual aids. Progress under this head has been very satisfactory. Over 600 radio sets have been distributed by the government to schools and community centres in rural areas. The rural

population are getting into the habit of using these sets in the evening for the purpose of listening to music, radio plays, news and talks on subjects of general interest. The broadcasting authorities of Ceylon arrange special programmes for rural adults. The Education Department has a fleet of six mobile cinema units, to which two motor cycle units will soon be added. These mobile units constantly tour the whole island giving cinema shows in rural areas.

The Agricultural Department, the Marketing Department and the Co-operative Department have, in their own fields, done a great deal for the economic wellbeing of the Ceylon villager.

Rural development societies. The Rural Development Department, begun in 1948, has made rapid progress. Societies have been formed in almost every village throughout Ceylon. They are assisted in all aspects of rural welfare work by divisional committees composed of the divisional revenue officer and other representative officers of the various government departments working in each area. The aim of these societies is to teach the villager the valuable lessons of self-help and co-operation, and to help him to become self-sufficient in the matter of food and other essentials. There are now nearly 6,000 of these societies and many of them have done useful work in opening roads, improving village cultivation and doing anti-crime work on a co-operative basis.

Community centres. The Department of Local Government has established a number of rural community centres in village committee areas. Activities at these centres include reading rooms, libraries, indoor and outdoor games and adult literacy classes. There are over 1,000 such centres registered at present and they are serving a very useful purpose.

Mahila Samitis. Of the voluntary organizations, which have always been recognized and encouraged by the government, the *Lanka Mahila Samiti* for women is the oldest and the most active. Inaugurated in 1931 it has made quiet and steady progress ever since. Its work has spread into all the nine provinces of the island; it has 1,000 branch centres with a membership of over 65,000. Through these branch centres the women in rural areas are trained in the art of fuller living and receive thorough instruction in all essential aspects of women's work. Besides literacy, instruction is given in health, agriculture and rural handicrafts. The women work with their hands and earn their own living while spending their time in useful and creative activity, at the same time assim-

lating a vast amount of knowledge which could never have been so readily acquired in the dull atmosphere of an ordinary classroom.

Organization of adult education. The Adult Education Movement, which progressed fairly satisfactorily up to 1953, received a setback owing to lack of government funds in 1954 and 1955, but from the 1956 financial year onwards there has been a revival of interest and the Department of Education has been instructed to open up new centres. There are four regional organizers in the department whose work is controlled and guided from the head office.

There are two types of adult education institution—the adult class and the adult centre. In actual organization, a class is started in a place as the first step and if this proves to be popular it is converted into a centre by the addition of other activities to provide training and recreation for the people in the area in various other matters. A schoolmaster, living in the vicinity, conducts a class either in the school itself or at a convenient place such as a community centre or a preaching hall of a temple. He is paid an allowance of Rs.10 per month; if there is an assistant he is paid Rs.7.50 per month. Once a class is converted into a centre the activities widen considerably and in addition to literacy classes, which have to be conducted at least three days a week for two hours per day, social and cultural activities such as folk music, folk drama, folk dancing and sports—both indoor and outdoor—are added. There is also training, whenever instructors can be found, in cottage industries such as rattan-making and coir work for men and knitting and weaving and basket-making for women. Emphasis on this depends on the availability of raw materials in the area. Attached to each centre is a library. The person in charge of a centre is paid an allowance of Rs.30 and his assistant Rs.20 per month; in this case too these supervisors are government teachers from a neighbouring school.

There are today 213 classes and 128 centres, including 7 centres organized in prisons. The teaching ranges from making the totally illiterate literate to providing literature for advanced teaching. A centre has to run classes for at least three days in the week for two hours per day. The total attendance today in all these centres and classes is estimated at 8,527, with an average of about 25 at each. Once in six months a test is conducted to ascertain the standard of the learners, but no examinations are conducted in the proper sense of the word. The reading room attached to each centre provides follow-up reading. Books worth Rs.200 are provided each year for each centre. In addition to books, newspapers and periodi-

cals provided by government departments and the Information Department, pamphlets that are issued by propaganda divisions of health, agriculture and co-operative departments are supplied free to the centres. With the attractions provided outside the literacy classes the centres virtually become community centres providing recreation for all the adults in the area and not necessarily for new literates only. Some of these centres are also provided with film-strip projectors for which strips are supplied by the audio-visual section of the Education Department which recalls the old material and issues new material periodically.

SURVEY OF EXISTING MATERIAL

In 1940, the Education Department embarked on a teacher-training scheme in adult education. Under this scheme a number of Sinhalese teachers were trained to conduct adult classes and were paid an extra allowance for undertaking this work. At that time there was no effort to produce any special reading material. In 1945, the need for a series of readers was felt and a book entitled *Adult Reader: Book I* was produced, it was based on some research on educational methods and the Principal of the Government Training College for Teachers was in charge of production. It is a small book of 32 pages printed in small type and using poor quality paper. This perhaps was necessary in order to sell it cheap—the sale price being 30 cents. Only Book I of this series was published and nothing else had been done until production of special reading material for new literates was taken over by the Fundamental Education Project at Minneriya which was started under the auspices of Unesco. Under the directions of the literacy expert attached to this project the first book called *Raja Rata Potha* (Book of the Country of Kings) was produced. This was intended to be a narrative dealing with historical aspects connected with the area in which the project was working, the intention being to provide the learners there with something they were already familiar with and therefore have their interest attracted from the start. The stories of national heroes they had heard about from their childhood formed the subject matter.

A number of follow-up readers were also produced at this centre. These are: *Jana Kavi* (Folk Songs), *Lanka Matha* (Mother Lanka), *Ape Aharaya* (Our Food), *Dutugemunu Rajathuma* (King Dutugemunu). The first of these is a collection of familiar local folk songs—even the illiterates know these songs. The second deals with the geography of Ceylon. The third deals with food

production which is the day-to-day occupation of the people who attend the classes. The last is the story of a national hero told in narrative style and in simple language. All these books were printed at the government's expense and generally distributed free to adults. They were produced without any systematic or scientific survey of the particular tastes and subject preference of the adults.

Two more books for which funds have been provided by the Unesco project are to be issued by the Government Printer—these are: *Bodu Katha Mala* (A Garland of Buddhist Stories) and *Lanka Katha* (Stories about Ceylon). These follow the same pattern as the four books mentioned above.

In order to encourage something more than the mere eradication of illiteracy the Education Department produced a number of discussion posters dealing with important social subjects which the adult classes were expected to discuss at meetings. The discussion was led by the teacher and the charts helped him to supply the talking points. One of these discussion posters deals with the increasing population in Ceylon, another with the production of rice. The teachers were supplied with cyclostyled lesson notes to form the basis of the discussion.

At the same time, the department made a start with a series of adult education pamphlets. The pamphlets, printed on thick paper in the form of a folder, have a number of panels, each one dealing with a subject of everyday interest to the villager. The subjects dealt with in the first pamphlet are cleanliness, soil conservation, drunkenness, hard work, education, value of being able to read and write, folk dancing, gambling, cottage industries, growing flowers around the house and transplanting. The folder is attractively produced with pictures and reading material below the pictures.

Ballad literature. Ceylon has a large amount of ballad literature—available to the village folk in the form of cheap booklets selling at anything from 10 cents to Rs.1. This ballad literature, of unknown authorship, comprises religious stories, folk tales, mythological stories of village deities, etc., and has been adding to the literature of the Sinhalese over the last three or four hundred years. These ballads are published by small printing establishments on very cheap paper and are generally sold by itinerant booksellers who visit fairs all over the country. They are also found at every festival centre during religious festivals. They still sell well even today, and the material finds its way to the remotest homes.

This ballad literature, of which there are over 200 titles available, has supplied the reading material for village folks for genera-



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Fig. 5. Well-known songs and stories with simple illustrations are often popular.

Unesco/Government of Ceylon Fundamental Education Project, *Jana kavi* (Book of Folk-songs), Minneriya, 1952.

tions and should continue to serve that purpose. The language used is very simple, generally colloquial, and all are in metrical verse. The printing is in large type to enable anyone who knows the alphabet to be able to pick out the words. Many people in villages know them by heart and a large number of them can be heard when people go on pilgrimage, which is frequent in Ceylon. The leader always carries a number of these books and the ballads are recited by one and all during the pilgrimage. They are particularly useful when pilgrims go on foot, and are even recited in buses.

Another peculiar phenomenon in Ceylon is the appearance of what are called 'kavi kola', i.e., verse pamphlets that appear whenever an important incident takes place in a village. The village poet composes from 10 to 20 verses on the incident—whether it be a religious ceremony or a murder—and this is produced and sold throughout the area where the incident is known. They have been very popular in the past. The temple education system, which existed in Ceylon up to the time the government took over education, ensured that almost every villager had read his alphabet in the temple under the Buddhist priest. With that knowledge he could decipher the verses in these ballads or verse pamphlets and thoroughly enjoy the contents. Women were not so keen as men in this regard because they did not go to the temple to learn.

No survey has been conducted to assess the value of this material nor to find out the subject preference of the rural people. The ballad literature provides only recreational reading or, when it deals with a religious subject, a certain amount of moral education. But the rural folk today need material to educate them, to familiarize themselves with and take advantage of modern developments in agriculture, sanitation, family welfare, etc., which are being rapidly introduced into Ceylon.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION AGENCIES

From what has been said it will be clear that there are few good books available. The libraries at the adult centres purchase whatever is available from the private publisher, such material ranging from fiction to popular science books. These are not produced for the new literate, but for the general reader and for school use. All that has been done so far has been by the government and it is anticipated that for some time to come it will have to shoulder the responsibility. For this purpose, the Department of Swabhasa (National language), created in 1955, might take over the work of publication. This department was formed in order to provide

books for schools in Sinhalese and Tamil in subjects such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, agriculture. It is at present engaged in the production of these books for the higher school forms but in due course can undertake the production of reading material for new literates also, by expanding its terms of reference and the appointment of more staff. At least one printing firm is interested in the better production of the ballad literature referred to above. If this is produced on good paper there is no doubt that it will become even more popular and will provide reading material for new literates as well as school children.

Distribution is not likely to raise a serious difficulty, once books are produced, because of the island-wide organization available through the Departments of Education and Rural Development. In addition to sales organizations or other distribution methods adopted, a mobile library service appears to be a very important need. If about nine units can be formed at the beginning, with vans, the material can be taken from place to place to various centres and exchanged or sold as the need arises. At present, Ceylon is very badly off as regards libraries. In the villages they are unknown. At every Buddhist temple—there is at least one in every big village—there is a nucleus of a library but the collection is confined to Buddhist literature, which is unsuitable for the average reader. These temples can, however, be made the centres for an island-wide library service, at least in the Sinhalese-speaking areas. In the fairly large temples there is always an incumbent priest with his pupils and there is also a preaching hall. A portion of this preaching hall can easily be converted into a reading room and library. This needs careful organization. If the temple can be made a gathering centre for the entire village, as it is now on religious occasions, reading can be made popular by enlisting the support of the priests.

CHAPTER IV

POPULAR SERIES PUBLISHING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM¹

This paper has been included to show that even in a country with almost 100 per cent literacy, several generations of universal education, and a long history of book production there is a type of 'popular' audience whose needs have to be met. In the United Kingdom, where book publishing is free and uncensored, some of the many publishing firms compete to meet these needs and no government action is needed, the publishing activities of the government being limited to the production, through Her Majesty's Stationery Office, of informative books and booklets which have to compete with the production of commercial firms for the public interest. The educational system, the work done by the government and other agencies in adult education, the public library system which is maintained by taxes, and the National Book League — all these assist in creating and stimulating the demand for reading material. C.G.R.

INTRODUCTION

Any attempt to argue directly from the experience of the Western World, and particularly of Great Britain and the United States of America, is likely to prove fallacious. In Great Britain, for example, popular or cheap editions, be they of the classics, of science or of simple entertainment, are almost as old as publishing. In Britain, although universal education was a nineteenth century development there were already at the time when printing was first developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries enough literate people,

1. By J. E. MORPURGO, Director, National Book League, London. Mr. J. E. Morpurgo, is a professional author with some twenty years experience of publishing in Britain, the Continent and the United States. For several years he worked under Sir Allen Lane at Penguin Books and he is still General Editor of the Pelican Histories and adviser to the firm on all historical matters. In 1954 he became Director of Britain's National Book League. He would like to emphasize that although in this paper he has made much use of experience thus gained, and despite the fact that his present post has given him a privileged position in securing information from publishers, printers and booksellers in the United Kingdom, from many of whom he has received willing co-operation, he alone is responsible for the facts, the opinions and the suggestions which are contained in the paper. Above all, neither Penguin Books Ltd. nor the National Book League can be considered to be giving collective information.

even outside the so-called aristocracy, to justify the very early attempts to make books available to them at reasonable prices and to make information accessible to them even on subjects which were generally above their heads. This statement is not merely of historical interest; it is significant as the background to all more recent endeavours in Britain, because the British people have grown up with the notion of popular education through books as part of their *mythos*.

Almost universal literacy in Britain has coincided with technical developments in printing, with developments in distribution machinery, and incidentally with other technical changes such as the growth of railway travel, and so over a fairly long period (at least a hundred years) the people have had easy reading within their grasp, have been able to obtain books almost everywhere in the country, and have known that books can be simply produced.

The social and educational environment in such countries as India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma suggests that the development which in England has taken at least a hundred years—and some would argue five hundred years—must be achieved in a short time, and that what in England has come by accident and through the gradual process of history, must there be achieved by deliberate design. A vast population which is not used to the idea of books has learned to read them and even to use them, but has not, perhaps, had opportunities either to find the books or to select from the general the particular needed for each individual's requirements.

It is possible that the very urgency of the situation may present certain advantages; British publishing, whether of popular editions or of the general run of books, is necessarily disorganized.

THE WRITING OF POPULAR BOOKS

British experience in this field is perhaps different from the experience of any other country in the world; but the reasons for this difference are connected rather with British education than with book production. Britain has successfully used distinguished scholars, even distinguished scientists, to introduce their own subjects to a general audience. It is not possible to teach the art of simplification, and the reason for the British success in it possibly lies in the persisting though declining education in the use of words which is given generally to the well educated in Britain, even though their technical education may never destine them for literary effort. In

this context, therefore, it is even more important in other countries than it is in Britain that editorial policies should be clear, authors well briefed, and close contact maintained between author and editor throughout the process of writing the book.

CONTROL OF OUTPUT AND COSTS

It is clear to all who consider seriously the economics of the book world in Britain that one of our greatest disadvantages lies in the number of titles published. There were 20,000 titles published in the year 1954-55. Apart altogether from the conspicuous waste that must be involved in the production of such a prodigious number, apart from the lurking tragedy (which numbers merely hint at) for those many manuscripts which never become books, there is in this quantity an obvious strain upon the distribution machinery. Although it is not necessary for any bookseller to stock all 20,000 titles, he must stock a considerable number, even though he is uncertain whether they will ever be ordered and, further, he must have easy access to single copies of all the other titles.

Nevertheless, British publishing, British bookselling and the British public as a whole would prefer economic waste to censorship, and they see no alternative to censorship of one kind or another as a sanction against overproduction of titles. In a system which does not have such a proliferation of publishers, nor such unlimited supplies of potential and anxious authors, it may be possible to establish some control which is nevertheless short of censorship.

For example, both without censorship and without government intrusion in any but the planning stage, it would not be difficult to list subjects which need book treatment, to share them out among private enterprise publishers and to allow publishers in their turn to share them out among suitable authors, thus in a comparatively short time covering the fields of essential knowledge without letting competition run riot. Further, it would be possible to avoid the disadvantages for Western publishing due to the enormous expense of introducing new printing machinery and new printing techniques. Development of long-run techniques in the Western world is far in advance of their actual use. To scrap old machinery while it is still usable is generally not practicable, but to instal new machinery and new techniques at the very beginning of popular publishing is both possible and obvious.

It must be emphasized from the beginning that neither historically nor in the future can successful popular publishing be set to

deliberate techniques. Looking back over the major ventures in this field it is clear that each depended upon individual genius and upon courage. It is not easy to train a publisher. It is certainly not possible to train men who will form the advance guard of a new publishing venture. All that one can indicate is the experience that others have gained, the successes they have had, and the errors that they have made.

None of the major British developments of the last hundred years in popular publishing is immediately applicable to the new circumstances of the East. For example, the audience for the World's Classics, Everyman, Home University Library and above all, Pelicans, is what one might describe as a sixth form trained audience, or at the very worst, a sixth-form *manqué* audience. It consists either of those who had an education to the age of eighteen or beyond, or of those who have missed an education for some reason or other but have somehow self-educated themselves to such a point where they can keep up with those more fortunate.

But the difference in standards does not necessarily imply a difference in publishing techniques and perhaps the evidence that comes from British experience only needs transposing into a simpler key. Penguin Books, for example, have attempted this with Pelicans especially written for West Africa. Pelicans are now some 70 per cent specially commissioned for the series and therefore much closer to the notion that must probably be applied in Asia.

Yet none of the statistics can be applied directly to any society other than the British. In publishing, printing, bookselling, in all distribution factors one must consider wage levels. In printing, recent experience has shown the extraordinary effect that wage increases have on costs. Nevertheless it can fairly be argued that in percentual consideration the proportions of various costs to price remain much the same whatever social environment one considers.

The following are some general observations on British practice in the production of popular series:

Printing, binding and paper costs stand in Britain at approximately 30 per cent of the published price of the ordinary run of books.

If the initial cost of type setting is £200 the cost per copy will be £2 if 100 copies are printed, 4s. if 1,000, 5d. if 10,000, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. if 100,000.

Discounts to distributors average almost 40 per cent of the published price.

Overheads, including advertising, average about 20 per cent of the published price.

It is doubtful if a popular series can stand a royalty of more than $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the published price, though it must be emphasized that the author is compensated by a long run, and by the large sale which is virtually guaranteed.

The average run of a Pelican is forty to fifty thousand and it is necessary to sell approximately at an average price of 2s. 6d. in order that the publisher should break even.

RATIONALIZATION

Of Manufacturing

In Britain very few trade publishers have their own manufacturing plant. The process of manufacturing is in several parts: editing and designing (the publisher); composition and printing (the printer); binding, and usually jacketing (the binder). In the case of illustrated books there is of course a fourth process, i.e., block-making; in addition the production of the illustrations is frequently carried out by a printer other than the one who produces the text.

By custom which was established in Britain when competition between printers was acute, printers frequently act as warehousemen and stock at very low charges publishers' plates, paper, printed sheets and even bound books. They continue to permit the publisher to allow for his risks by printing far more sheets of a title than he needs to launch the book, and they bind them up and charge for them only as the publisher requires more copies.

This division of labour, costs, and risk has its advantages under the British system, though even in Britain it is doubtful if it is now economic. In a new system, however, there may be much to be said for a rationalization of endeavour. The constant necessity under our system for communication and transport between publishing office, printer and binder and the need to establish facilities for warehousing and recording at all three points as well as at the bookseller and the bookselling middleman, the wholesaler, where he exists, places a burden on overheads and decreases efficiency.

Of Editing

It must be emphasized that in the view of the author of this paper—a view which is in line with that generally held in Britain—a complete rationalization would be undesirable. There are advantages implicit in the separation of editorial and distribution

machinery, and such advantages will probably persist in whatever environment a new system is organized. So far as Britain is concerned, London and, to a lesser extent, Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh have been and are likely to remain the intellectual, artistic and academic centres. Those scholars and writers who are not living in one of these centres do occasionally visit them, and it is considerably easier for them to call upon an editor than it would be for an editor established away from the centre to go around the places where scholars and writers are most likely to be found.

There is too an intangible but invaluable exchange of ideas, information and suggestions in a big centre that does not exist in isolated places and that is part of the editorial environment.

It is essential, then, to keep editing close to the exchange of ideas; but it is not generally practicable to move the other machinery of publishing into the same area. In London, for example, where editorial space is expensive, it would be virtually impossible to find or finance large areas for printing, binding and warehousing. It is probable that this necessity for separation will exist, but to a lesser degree, wherever a new system is established.

There are, too, certain less direct advantages that come from separating editorial work from production. British experience is against standardization of books. In our opinion the information which comes from books cannot and should not be separated from the pleasure which comes from seeing and handling books. It is significant that all of the worthwhile major experiments in popular publishing in Britain have allied sound editing to good book design.

A complete rationalization of publishing processes might be thought to imply uniformity of production styles which in itself would be monotonous and inimical to the intention. Even worse, a complete rationalization might lead to uniformity in editing procedures and to the imposition upon the general public of the decisions of the few. This rationalization would virtually mean censorship.

Of Distribution

There are in Great Britain some 4,000 book outlets, and some 2,750 members of the Booksellers' Association, but perhaps only 300 to 400 'pedigree' bookshops (i.e., shops which sell only books).

Relate these figures to the total number of books available and it will be seen that bookselling cannot be efficiently or economically organized on our basis. Even in Britain there is a tendency to rationalization through chains, and at least an impulse to return

to the old combination of publisher-bookseller and its modern development of direct selling by post from the publisher to the customer.

Rationalization of distribution, like rationalization of production may lead to censorship of one kind or another. It is suggested that a degree of rationalization is practicable which would not sacrifice variety or liberty, and it is possible to put as a working hypothesis the following simplification of the British procedure. The establishment in publishing centres of houses (or the development of existing houses) which will be responsible for: (a) all editorial decisions, (b) all selling—in the sense of travelling and accounting, (c) a limited production policy—production only in so far as it means liaison with printers and an over-all but not detailed supervision of design.

The establishment away from large centres but in places suitable as distribution points of 'manufacturers'; these manufacturers to be responsible for: (a) design, (b) all production from printing, including production of illustrations, through binding and wrapping, (c) all warehousing, stock-keeping and record holding, (d) all distribution whether of bulk orders, small orders or single copies.

If books are clearly marked with the manufacturer's name as well as the publisher's there need be no confusion in ordering, and the publisher can therefore retain his indubitable need and right to choose his manufacturer according to the book and to seek competitive tenders.

If a system of publishing within any country preferred to hold even closer to the old-established British custom, then it would be simple to modify the procedure outlined above so that all orders could be channelled through the publisher's office. A code lettering system such as is extensively used by large British publishers could be enlarged and made standard within a country so that an order going through a publishing office would be immediately identifiable in terms of manufacturer and distributor, e.g., in British terms, C.W.191.H.W.V. would be recognizable as Chatto and Windus, title, held at Hazel, Watson and Viney. Although this modification is more expensive than the more thorough rationalization proposed earlier, it is cheaper than the present British system.

Enlargement of distribution. There is nothing fundamentally wrong—indeed there is much that is fundamentally correct—in books being sold outside recognized book outlets. Department stores, village stores, even schools and adult education centres, should be

encouraged to sell books, though these purchases must be carefully controlled—preferably through the ‘manufacturer-distributor’—to avoid overstocking and they must be in contact with any informational organization that is established.

Bookmobiles, travelling bookshops, could be maintained, either by the government or the manufacturer-distributor which would take suitable books to villages which have no other outlet.

Established booksellers could be encouraged to clear overstocks once or twice a year by a National Book Sale (such as now exists in Britain) but this sale must be carefully controlled and managed in agreement with the publisher and the manufacturer-distributor.

Of Specifications

One further rationalization that is suggested without hesitation is the establishment of a number of standard specifications for the size of books. Anyone who owns an even moderately sized library of English, American or Continental books will realize what enormous variations there can be within the proclaimed ‘standards’ of crown, octavo, quarto, etc.

In the United States one of the chief book manufacturers, the Colonial Press, has a manufacturing scheme called the ‘A Plan’ which allows to publishers as much as 10 per cent discount on normal quotations on any jobs with certain standard specifications. The first offer was on books printed on sheets 44 × 66 inches, and various other specifications have been issued, but no variation from the specification is allowed. The economies which result are obvious.

What is more, if limited standard specifications are encouraged throughout a publishing system—machinery, as well as paper—purchases can be rationalized, and the possibility of printing books ‘two up’ enhanced.

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

The heavy capitalization involved in manufacturing plants in the Western world makes it difficult for us to branch out into new production methods, though we are much disturbed by the fact that a routine production order may involve the use of seventeen different machines. It may well be that elsewhere the experiments which we have already made in such methods—experiments which frequently go no farther because of high capital costs—could be put to good use. Books can be composed on a variety of

new machines similar to the ordinary typewriter and far less expensive than linotype or monotype. If books composed on these machines and printed by photo-offset could overcome the sentimental prejudices against them (a prejudice which does not exist in countries without a habit of printing), they might well solve the problem of the short run and would be invaluable for limited circulation publication. More important for the purpose of this paper, they might serve as a means of publishing short test runs of books that are eventually intended for a wide market.

Already plastics, rubber and magnesium have been used in place of the traditional lead and copper for plate-making, and it seems likely that the loss of quality in the impressions and the unevenness of the ink-spread is a temporary difficulty which will soon be overcome. Even now many of the blemishes are only visible to the expert. In particular, rubber plates possess obvious advantages, they certainly require less ink for the same amount of work, and they save make-ready time, often to the extent of cutting eighteen hours work to half an hour. If rubber plates can be perfected they are likely to have an enormous influence in particular on the large run popular edition. With the present system it is necessary to run to some thirty to forty thousand copies in order to use the rotary press economically, but experiments in both England and America have proved that with rubber plates it is possible to print on rotary presses some fifteen thousand copies and to keep the edition at a reasonable price.

An illustrated book can be produced in many different ways: by photo-lithography, by autolithography on zinc or plastic plates, by photogravure, by letterpress on line and half-tone plates.

The last technological development which it is necessary to mention is in the use of new adhesives for attaching the case to the signatures. Such adhesives as are now in general use take at least four hours to dry. Experimental adhesives, though still brittle, dry almost instantaneously. At the moment their use involves the introduction of new and costly machinery but where no other machinery exists such machinery could be introduced from the outset.

LAUNCHING A POPULAR SERIES

A short excursion into the history of the British popular series is perhaps worth while, as containing many hints for the future.

The erudite will refer to John Bell's *British Poets* of which 109 volumes appeared between 1777 and 1782, priced at 8s. but

various series nearer to our purpose began to appear in the 1830s. Constable's *Miscellany* and John Moore's *Family Library* both stressed the educational rather than the entertainment side of writing. Both priced their books at 6s. a volume (which is to be compared with the standard price for a nineteenth century novel of 31s. 6d.). Both Constable and Murray printed on newly invented machined wood pulp paper and issued most of their books in paper boards for sale by stationers and railway bookstalls. Around 1850, three new series, the *Irish Parlour Library*, Routledge's *Railway Library* and Bohn's *Shilling Series*, appeared on the scene to produce for the most part popular reprints of fiction priced at about a shilling. Some years later Routledge also produced the *Universal Library* and in 1886 Cassell's started their *National Library*, which within four years issued 214 volumes at weekly intervals at the price of 3d. each paper bound, or 6d cloth bound. These volumes were mostly fiction. (In parenthesis it is necessary to make a reference to the German series, Reclam's *Universal Bibliothek* which between 1867-1942 had sold over six million copies of Ibsen's works and almost a million copies of Schopenhauer—an author who had sold only 140 copies of his first book over a period of twenty years.)

Nelson's *New Century Library* was founded in 1900 (and renamed *Nelson's Classics* in 1905). In 1901, Grant Richards started the *World's Classics*, a series taken over by the Oxford University Press in 1905. Collins *Pocket Classics* began to appear in 1903 and Dent's *Everyman Library* in 1906. There was much in common in all these series, but it is notable that all the later series introduced history and biography, theology and philosophy to their lists, with an appeal, as J. M. Dent of Everyman put it, 'to every kind of reader: the worker, the student, the cultured man, the child, the man and the woman'.

During the first thirty years of this century British popular education progressed enormously, and after the first world war, agencies other than schools and books began to take part in informing the public. The radio, the cinema and the popular press all found opportunities to take part in the movement, and it was thus to a well-prepared audience that the first Penguins made their appeal.

An Example—Penguin Books Ltd.

It is not claimed that Penguins were the first publishers in Great Britain to produce cheap reprints, but the catholicity of Penguins, both in reprints and in new works, has helped to give the public

the enlightenment it craves, the recreation it needed, and the joy of possession—entrenching 'themselves in their books equally against sorrow and the weather'.

It is an economic fact that expensive editions, even ordinary editions, are out of the reach of a majority of the people. The success of Penguins has been built on a consciousness of the difference between the two meanings of the word 'cheapness'. Penguins are 'cheap' to buy in terms of money, but their contents are never 'cheap' in the sense of being shoddy.

In 1935 when Allen Lane (now Sir Allen), who was then managing director of the Bodley Head, first conceived the idea that became Penguins, he went against the advice of all the experts. Publishers, booksellers, and students of public opinion all claimed that unorthodox book publishing was bound to fail, and their claims were supported by previous experience. Only Allen Lane himself, his two brothers and a few enthusiasts looked to Penguins as to a revolutionary but practicable development.

Even these optimists did not allow their optimism to go too far. Of each of the first 10 titles, 20,000 copies were printed, but the precaution was taken of binding only 10,000. The first orders supported the experts and it looked as if the new firm would never achieve the sales of 17,000 which were necessary to make the venture a financial possibility.

The British public confounded the experts—confounded even the enthusiasts of Penguins. It seemed as if good books at 6d. each were the very thing for which the world had been waiting. Today Penguins would not consider a printing of 20,000 a sound business proposition, but in 1935 20,000 sold copies meant the realization of a great ambition.

It is significant that the very first title on the Penguin lists was a non-fiction book by a Continental author of great eminence, Andre Maurois' *Ariel*, and since then Penguins have developed on international lines and the emphasis has been placed more and more upon serious books that are not easily available to the bookbuying public. *Ariel* was a reprint, but in 1937 Penguins entered the realms of original work. The Pelican series, founded under the editorship of V. K. Krishna Menon, W. E. Williams (then secretary of the British Institute of Adult Education, later Director of the Army Bureau of Current Affairs and now Secretary-General of the Arts Council and Sir William) and H. L. Beales, of the London School of Economics, was inaugurated with Bernard Shaw's *Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism, Capitalism, Sovietism, and Fascism*. True, in this volume only the sections on Sovietism and Fascism were new, but later in the same year the first of the

Penguin Specials appeared and today about 70 per cent of the firm's output is new material.

Some original Pelicans have become standard works in their own field. Nikolaus Pevsner's *Outline of European Architecture* has achieved the double distinction of being selected as a school textbook and of being reprinted in a more expensive edition by another publishing house. Professor Gordon Childe's *What Happened in History* is the outstanding work on pre-history and Roger Manvell's book *Film* is generally accepted as the best concise work on a difficult but universally interesting subject.

The demand for books at reasonable prices has been proved to exist and has been satisfied (so far as has been possible in a record that includes six years of war), but success has brought increased responsibilities. It would be comparatively easy for the individuals at the head of Penguins to attempt to force their own opinions on the large reading public that they have encouraged or created. On the other hand, it would be practicable to insist that all Penguin publications should be uncontroversial—practicable but very dull. The aim of Penguins is to provide an intelligent compromise between these courses.

It is not denied that an author (living or dead) is chosen because, in the opinion of the Penguin staff and the Penguin public, he is a good author who has written or can write a good book, but he is not chosen because his opinions coincide with the opinions of Penguin Books, nor because his art happens to satisfy some synthesis developed by the editorial staff.

It is in the nature of 'experts' to prove a case and write Q.E.D. at the end of their essays. Penguins continue to encourage all writers of specially commissioned books to see a little farther and to attempt to give every side of any problem, but they do not attempt to force impartiality on the expert. If, as is so often inevitable with topical discussions, partiality strays into partisanship, Penguins look upon it as their duty to provide a platform on which the experts can dispute among themselves in full view of the public.

The early Penguin titles were all by contemporary authors but, with the inclusion as No. 20 of Samuel Butler's *Erewhon*, Penguins began a policy which has continued ever since of reprinting great English classics which are not generally available, and this policy has been carried to its logical conclusion by the addition of a new series of translations of foreign classics. The success of the inaugural volume in this series, E. V. Rieu's translation of *The Odyssey*—almost one million copies sold in less than ten years—has again confounded the Job's comforters, who claimed that only a limited

intellectual circle would be interested in Homer. *The Iliad*, Sophocles, Xenophon, Plato, Theocritus, Virgil, Tacitus, Dante, Cervantes, Voltaire, de Maupassant, Turgenev, Gorki, Dostoevsky and Ibsen are now available in Penguin translations.

For many years the German publishing house, Insel Verlag, had the monopoly of inexpensive coloured books, but in 1939 a series of coloured Penguins, the King Penguin series (of which Nikolaus Pevsner is the editor and R. B. Fishenden, one of England's greatest authorities on colour printing, the technical editor), was started.

Other series include *Penguin Science News* and *Penguin New Biology* (two series of a magazine type which allow real experts to provide up-to-date information on highly specialist subjects to non-experts), the Pelican Philosophies, Psychologies, Guide to English Literature, the Pelican Histories of the World, of England and the British Commonwealth, the Modern Painter's series, the Puffin Books for children, the Penguin Dictionaries, the Pelican Handbooks (of a practical nature, on gardening, woodwork, fruit-growing and the like).

Among the lessons to be learnt from the success of the Penguin experiment probably the most important is one of timing. It is difficult to appreciate whether Penguins create an interest or satisfy an interest which already exists. In reality there is a subtle compromise between these two extremes—a readiness to seize upon the chance given by the first flicker of public interest in a subject to prepare for the public a detailed and authoritative statement which will fan and feed the interest. This emphasizes the need for alert and imaginative editing.

Comments and Suggestions

Certain further comments may give hints which may be useful elsewhere.

Penguins have rarely advertised, not because the firm has a theoretical or philosophical objection to newspaper advertising but because the economics of cheap publishing do not allow of the kind of expense involved in advertising.

Penguins have never indulged in 'sale or return' distribution, always insisting that Penguins are books, not magazines. They have thus avoided the risks which came with deliberate overstocking by distributors.

For many years the net profit of the firm before taxation has averaged 5 per cent of the turnover and not a penny has gone in dividends. All is transferred to capital account and applied to financing further development.

For all specialist subjects the firm has contrived to retain a number of outside editors and advisers—the acknowledged experts in their fields—and has thus ensured sound advice, careful and up-to-date planning, closer liaison with those working in a particular field, and at the same time has secured much expert editorial help without an enormous addition to overheads.

It is clear from British experience that once a literate audience exists it is possible to launch a popular series, and further, that a literate audience is ready to absorb an enormous variety of subjects—so long as the exposition is clear and sound. First efforts are likely to be successful if they include such items as: reprints of classical and good quality modern fiction; how-to-do-it books, including books on agriculture; restatements of world and national problems; history, elementary and advanced economics, art religion and popular science; good colourful children's books, particularly if they mirror the type of subject explained to adults.

Audience interests can only be judged by careful and widely based editorial investigation, that is to say by employing editors who are constantly aware of what is going on around them, and by using—either directly or through advisers—editors who keep *au fait* with the experts in almost any subject. The establishment of a 'market' or 'requirement' research organization for the whole publishing system could be an additional task of the central informational body mentioned below (see pages 86-90).

It is not necessary to go in for elaborate production; indeed, it is not possible to produce elaborately within the economics of popular editions, but good typography, clear illustration, and colourful bindings enhance the chances of a series and encourage both distributors and purchasers. None of these good features is expensive. Paper covers are not despised by any public which has learnt to respect what goes between the covers.

The fixing of price is a national matter, but as a guide based on British experience the author of this paper would urge that the price of any popular series should be roughly geared to the price of some other generally used 'luxury-necessity', for example a packet of twenty cigarettes (now in Britain 3s.10d. whereas a Pelican is generally 3s. 6d.).

THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENTAL AND PUBLIC AUTHORITIES

British experience does not generally favour direct publishing activity by the government, although it must be remembered that Her Majesty's Stationery Office has by far the largest output of

any British publisher (1,380 titles in 1955 as against the 519 of its nearest rival, Collins) and that it is one of the great publishers of popular series, particularly of that kind of book which translates public policy to the generality and of 'how-to-do-it' books where the subject, for example farming, health, or road-safety, is allied to public policy.

The dangers of exclusively governmental or public authority publishing are obvious. The public may be suspicious that governmental publishing is a form of censorship; publishing policies may too easily be directed by party interests and their logic disrupted by changes in power. But a close alliance between the government (national or local) and private enterprise publishing exists in Britain and could be used most effectively, even more effectively than in Britain, in the establishment of any new system.

For example: One of the major problems of all popular edition publishers is to secure a wide enough audience for any one title to ensure economic publishing. If a school authority, a government department or a health authority is embarking upon some new departure for which 'educational' literature is necessary, it can and should inform the 'popular' publisher well in advance and in the greatest detail so that he may produce the appropriate books. It can even go further and guarantee in advance the purchase and distribution of an appropriate number of the required title. Support, if not initiation, by established authority increases the prestige of a book and a publisher and makes for economic stability. (In parenthesis it is worth pointing out that in all good publishing, be it 'popular' or conventional, a success in one direction helps the publisher to take risks in another, or put another way, that no good publisher pockets all the profits from a best-seller, instead he puts them to the task of financing less certain titles for his list.)

Information and Research

The government and other public authorities can further assist by establishing or helping to establish central bodies which can take over the tasks of: (a) informing the public as to what books exist, encouraging reading and the use of books; (b) stimulating interest in books on a particular subject and bringing them to the notice of any appropriate section of the community; (c) keeping statistical information; (d) investigating public tastes and needs.

In Britain much of this work is done by an organization which

is admittedly not governmental but which is at least central, and it is therefore worth speaking of the work of the National Book League.

The National Book League

Other countries have a central book chamber set up and financed either by the government or by the book trade; the National Book League (N.B.L.) receives neither money nor special recognition from either central or local government and yet works closely with several government agencies and with many local authorities. Most countries, including Britain, have their associations of authors, of publishers, of booksellers and of librarians. The N.B.L. is none of these things, but its purpose and function is recognized by the professional bodies, many of whose members are members also of the League. Some who sit in their councils help also to lead the League, and there are few indeed who belong to any of the bookish professions who will not come to the assistance of the League when required. In terms of time, energy and knowledge the N.B.L. receives some of its most generous support from authors, booksellers, printers, publishers, bookbinders and librarians, yet they neither ask nor receive preferential treatment over the League's private members, the schools, industrial and commercial organizations and trade unions who support the League because they wish to increase for themselves the benefits which they know to come from reading, and because they are prepared to help others to enjoy the same benefits.

Stated baldly in the N.B.L. membership leaflet, the League is described as: 'a public society supported entirely by the subscription of its members. Its aim is to stimulate the full use and enjoyment of books. It is strictly non-commercial and makes no profits.'

Like any simple statement of aims, the National Book League's is explicit without being particularly revealing. It must be admitted that from time to time the public—and indeed the League itself—has assumed that it functions as some kind of mammoth literary society, godmother to 'booksiness' and cousin to 'uplift', yet the N.B.L. has 'no repugnances' in book matters.

The first principle on which the League acts is that there are good books of all kinds; the second, that there is no subject without a good book. It is our business for example to help the young to discover the classics of English literature, but it is just as much our business to introduce them to a book on how to play Association Football. Once a year the N.B.L. sets selectors to the task of choosing one hundred well-produced British books; in every other

year it shows these alongside the finest books from other countries. The N.B.L. Exhibition of International Book Design has undoubtedly done much to raise the standards of British book production. This is an entirely proper activity for the League. Yet encouraging uniformly beautiful production is not by any means the League's ultimate aim. The beauty, the fascination and the historic associations of rare editions the League is happy to demonstrate by public exhibition, but we do not assume that 'association copies' are more in keeping with the policy of the N.B.L. than the fifteen thousandth copy of the latest thriller, nor that finest morocco is more worthy of our consideration than an arithmetic textbook or a paper-bound picture-book. We are as interested in helping the factory worker to increase his interest in his job and his productivity by leading him to the books that go with his job, as we are in assisting the don who is writing a thesis on the Renaissance Idea of the Renaissance.

The National Book League is now more than thirty years old. Founded, as the National Book Council in 1924, it owed its origins to the feeling among members of the Society of Bookmen that some further organization was needed to 'encourage a wider and more discriminating interest in books among all sections of the population'. As the organization grew, and its activities, scope and support widened, several new facilities—now part of the everyday work of the League—were added or extended.

The League has undertaken research into school book allowances (in collaboration with the Association of Education Committees); at the request of the Board of Trade it has investigated the use of libraries in industry; it has looked into the provision of space for books in council houses; it has exhibited current books in schools, public libraries, wine cellars, cinema foyers, village halls and trade union conferences as well as in its own building in Albemarle Street. The N.B.L. was responsible for the part that books played in the 1951 Festival of Britain, and has organized rare book exhibitions at home and abroad.

It has published already some hundreds of book lists and reader's guides. It has enlarged and is enlarging this work in several directions. The first edition of the *Education Book Guide*—a comprehensive annotated list of all books published in 1954-55, text or library, suitable for school use—has already been published in collaboration with the Councils and Education Press. In addition, small committees of experts are preparing selective subject lists designed to help young readers and those, teachers and parents, whose task it is to guide them. A full-scale touring exhibition containing some three to four thousand titles which

might be in school libraries is now available to local education authorities.

The League has taken up the problem of literacy in a country where the population is for the most part literate. It has organized an exhibition of books for semi-literates, or backward readers, as a guide to officers of Borstal institutions and is at the moment organizing a similar exhibition for the Army.

All this, as well as the N.B.L. journal, *Books*, the N.B.L. press department and the lectures and discussions which are organized at its London headquarters, and up and down the country, are evidence of the League's conviction that it must play its part in informing, educating and assisting all who have book problems to solve—and in the task of arousing the many who have not yet realized that books are of importance to them. It is significant that almost the first department set up by the National Book Council was the Book Information Bureau, for information is the key to all work of the N.B.L. Next came a library of books on books, which now contains some five thousand volumes. The information bureau and the library, working as one unit, not only answer some thirty to forty thousand queries a year which come in from members on subjects ranging from the date, author and publishers of a book to the source of a quotation, but also compile elaborate book lists—many of them the raw material for printed lists published by the N.B.L. or by other organizations. The Book Information Bureau has thus become an active, and not merely a passive, part of the League's work, its task being to place book information before the public in whatever fashion seems practical.

Inevitably the League is alive to the necessity of finding new readers, and consequently much of its work is directed at the largest source for new readers, the young. By working with parents and teachers to ensure a continuing interest in books, the League helps to keep the rising generation from addiction to comic strips, and from turning into uncritical devotees of television.

Yet the League has not set its face against the various forms of modern mass entertainment. It believes that radio and television need not destroy the future of books but can help to arouse an interest in good books of all kinds. Thus it has successfully arranged or taken part in radio and television programmes connected with books.

In this, as in other directions, the League is not ashamed to preach, so long as preaching goes with practical assistance. In 1955, for example, the League issued, to every school and education authority in the country, a booklet, *Books in Your School*, as the first step in a campaign to arouse active opinion to the deplorable

condition of many textbooks and to the lack of school library facilities in Britain today. But *Books in Your School* was not merely propaganda; more particularly it was a guide to help teachers in designing 'book-policies' for their schools.

Anything which involves books is the business of the N.B.L. In 1955, almost twenty thousand titles were published in Great Britain, and in 1954, and in 1953. All of these are our business; all the books back to Caxton's first are our business; any use to which these books can be put is our business, and any way in which we can make books more useful to the community at large.

One further aspect of the possible work of some central informational organization: There are in any country a considerable number of people and groups of people who are bound to be interested in any one title. Publishers cannot contrive to reach them all, nor could they afford to do so even if their knowledge were greater. A central organization not concerned with making profits, and particularly if it were in close touch with other central and local organizations, could undertake to maintain suitable lists for circularization, could arrange for the publication of informational literature on books published, for appropriate exhibitions in the right places, and for the exchange of information between publisher and publisher, between authority and publisher, and between publisher, authority and the public.

PART TWO

THE LITERATURE BUREAU

CHAPTER V

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF A LITERATURE BUREAU¹

This paper will be of special value to any government proposing to establish a central literature organization; it deals with all aspects, from the framework and staff of a literature bureau to the details of costing and distribution of a bureau's productions. In preparing this composite picture the author has drawn on his own experience in Central Africa and the South Pacific; reference is also made to the East African Literature Bureau.

In one respect the compiler of this book differs from Mr. Roberts: the section on costing is to my mind over-elaborate and examples of a simpler form of costing sheet are given at the conclusion of the paper showing the system in use by the East African Literature Bureau. C.G.R.

INTRODUCTION

In February 1954, Unesco devoted an issue² of *Education Abstracts* to literature bureaux and production centres and it was stated therein: 'A good deal is written about literacy campaigns and a good deal of material is prepared for them. However, when one tries to limit an enquiry to the mechanics of preparing follow-up reading matter, one discovers how little authoritative information exists in print. Discussions of the purpose and content of reading, although important in themselves, throw little light on the question of "mechanics". The essential elements are: What form of organization is best suited to this task? What is the cost structure? How can the difficulties of language, authorship, production and distribution best be overcome?

This study tries to answer these questions.

The reader of this study will find many references to the fact that the structure and methods of a literature bureau must be shaped by the needs and circumstances of the area in which it operates. Nevertheless, a study of the work of many literature

1. By BRUCE ROBERTS, South Pacific Commission.

2. Unesco, 'Literature Bureaux and Production Centres', *Education Abstracts*, vol. VI, no. 2, 1954.

centres does reveal much agreement of opinion about the objectives to be sought and about the ground to be covered; and the various alternative methods which have been used to achieve these objectives are not necessarily better or worse than others; it is more a question of which methods are most suitable for the actual conditions obtaining; which should be retained and developed in pursuit of long-term objectives; and which may be regarded as only temporary means to ends. This study therefore presents a composite picture of the work of many literature bureaux and production centres and of the alternative methods used by them; it endeavours to relate these alternatives to an appropriate context, and to present them in such a way that the reader may assess for himself their relative usefulness in the conditions obtaining in his own area.

Costs structures, both capital and recurrent, also vary very much from territory to territory, and in the writer's experience actual figures for one territory often have little validity in another. This study therefore seeks to indicate the requirements of a literature bureau both in terms of categories of expenditure and in terms of staffing, in such a way that the reader can work out for himself the initial requirements for his own area and can cost these in relation to local conditions.

Finally, as already mentioned, available documentation seldom deals exhaustively with the particular points at issue; much of it is in the form of departmental reports and memoranda not generally available for study. The pioneers in this field have been, and still are, busy people who have had to feel their way and learn by experience; modesty and lack of time have combined to prevent their recording in detail the development and conduct of their work. Consequently the writer of this study, in plucking flowers from the sheltered corners of other men's gardens, does so with a very sincere acknowledgement of the spade work they have done.

Why a Literature Bureau?

Where there is a general shortage of literature, is not the solution a simple question of the government voting sufficient money for this purpose? Why not allocate funds to the various departments of government and allow them to get on with producing the textbooks and other literature necessary to their work, leaving the rest to be filled through commercial channels? Why a literature bureau?

The answers to these questions are manifold. There are mechanical reasons; the literature needs of an advancing people cannot be confined to the provision of specific textbooks and

works of instruction, and there are many other desirable types of literature which do not come within the orbit of the usual departments of government; similarly, the various stages in the production and the distribution of even the simplest piece of literature involve the work of many different people, only few of whom will be attached to one single department; many different specialist activities are also involved in such work. It is uneconomic and inefficient to have many government departments duplicating work and overlapping in these activities. A specialized and suitably equipped organization is required to deal with the matter, and that is just what a literature bureau is.

Illiteracy not an Independent Phenomenon

Illiteracy, absence of literature, and the general level of economic development in an area are interrelated situations, not independent phenomena. As the Unesco publication on literature bureaux and production centres states:¹ 'The problem of reading matter may scarcely be felt in a country where education and publishing progress side by side, slowly enough to influence each other. The problem is acute in those regions where language difficulties coincide with an absence of publishing, so that educational materials for young and old are entirely lacking.'

In countries where education and publishing have progressed side by side, the vast majority of literature requirements are provided by commercial organizations through the ordinary operations of the law of supply and demand. Most publishing in such countries might be termed 'risk' publishing; it is not sponsored by the government, and is only occasionally, selectively, and indirectly supported by the State. Commercial publishers compete with each other in trying to perceive and anticipate reading tastes and needs, and to provide the material to meet these needs; the test of sales is a continuous—if sometimes an austere—guide. But the successful and satisfactory provision of sufficient reading material by these methods depends on there being enough people with the desire and ability to read, and with the means to buy reading material, and on the existence of facilities for distributing and selling such material.

Objectives of a Literature Bureau

In less developed areas the above-mentioned situation does not

1. Ibid.

exist or is only in the early stages of development; in such areas literature shortages do not solely derive from such immediate causes as, for example, absence of writers or lack of printing machinery. Given the will and the funds, temporary and specific literature shortages occasioned by direct causes such as these can be fairly easily and quickly ameliorated. But if we look farther ahead—to the stage where publishing in its proper sense becomes possible, where publishing and the reading public can influence each other and develop side by side, where the necessity for massive support from public funds can be progressively diminished and the development of genuine local literature can begin to flower—then it is necessary to attack the fundamental and indirect causes of literature shortage as well as the immediate and direct causes. For this reason the operations of a literature bureau must go beyond the narrow objective of providing particular pieces of literature; the methods used must also seek to promote all those ancillary objectives which go towards making possible an independent and self-supporting literature.

It is this factor that determines the scope, organization and methods of a literature bureau, and distinguishes its work from the methods used in earlier efforts to meet literature needs. In those earlier methods *ad hoc* steps were taken from time to time to meet the needs for particular pieces of literature, but there was no machinery available for a continuous effort to deal with the over-all problem. Thus while specific shortages were sometimes overcome, not enough was done to remove the fundamental causes of such shortages and consequently, with the development of the territory and the advancement of the people, the shortages increased.

Characteristics of Existing Literature Provision

In areas where education and publishing (and the ancillary arts and trades) have progressed side by side, literature supplies are in fact adequate, or at any rate do not present any problems that are not capable of fairly simple and quick solutions. A pointer to some of the long-term objectives of literature provision may therefore be gained from an examination of certain characteristics of literature provision in these areas. Some of these characteristics are as follows:

There is an abundance of literature adequate in range of subject matter, variety, and treatment to the needs of all classes of reader at every age.

The supply remains up to date, meeting changing needs, tastes, and discoveries.

The literature is reasonably easily accessible to all elements of the population, through bookshops, libraries, etc.

The supply of literature is maintained through normal means of demand and supply, and financed through individual or group purchase. Official participation in the stimulation, direction, and financial support of the supply tends to be indirect, selective in its point of application, and small in relation to the total output; the individual reader has a freedom of choice in his reading matter, and the necessary physical opportunity for making this choice.

Factors which Determine Policy

Obviously the degree to which objectives of this kind can be attained depend eventually on the wealth and general economic development of a community, and also on factors such as total population (or size of the various language groups within the area) and geographical and other conditions affecting the possibility of easy communications. It would be unrealistic for the literature bureau type of organization to seek to attain all these long-term objectives immediately, regardless of expense; within its long-term programme, it will have a number of shorter-term objectives related to the particular situation existing in its area which must be given immediate priority. But the essence of a literature bureau's methods is this: in the development of a literature provision programme, and in the methods adopted for securing it, a number of alternative decisions is possible at every stage—the editorial stage, production stage, and distribution stage; whenever practicable the particular methods selected from the possible alternatives are chosen with the purpose of keeping moving towards the achievement of the situation described in the previous paragraph.

The alternatives to this policy do not appear to be acceptable, for either the government must make itself permanently responsible for an ever growing range of literature which a developing people needs—a policy which is as distasteful as it is impracticable—or it must limit its responsibility to the provision of a narrow range of specific needs for its own social service departments. The latter alternative not only leaves untouched the fundamental problems of why literature provision is not keeping pace with growing needs, but as will be shown may even impede a solution to these problems (see page 103).

It is necessary to emphasize these long-term aims of literature provision because in rapidly developing countries they are often

obscured by the urgency of the immediate specific needs of the various social service departments, e.g., education, health and agriculture. An example may be given in explanation: While there are a number of primary and secondary causes of the chronically unsatisfactory supply of literature in the areas under discussion, the cumulative effect of these causes is the prevention of the normal operation of the factors of supply and demand which alone make it possible for publishing and education to influence each other, and adequate literature provision to result. Now it so happens that in the early stages in these areas the need for what might be termed 'official literature' (e.g., school textbooks, and various other forms of informative or instructional literature) constitutes an unduly large proportion of the total immediate and urgent requirements. These needs will have to be financed very largely from public funds; but if the preparation, production and distribution of all this material is kept exclusively within the confines of government organizations and the long-term aims already defined are ignored, we are simply adding one more factor to the prevention of the development of conditions where normal factors of supply and demand may operate—the exact opposite of what we need to do.

Distribution

A similar situation exists as regards the all-important factor of distribution. The satisfactory provision of literature is impossible without an adequate distribution system. As has been said, in the areas under discussion school books and official books of instruction often form the bulk of literature supplies for some considerable time; if all school books are distributed through official channels we are creaming off such a large part of the literature distribution business that we remove almost all the incentive for other agencies to stock literature at all, and we prevent the development of a satisfactory distribution system. Yet unless a government is prepared permanently to finance the production and distribution of the entire range of literature, it is only through purchase by the public that its production can be financed; and it is a satisfactory distribution system that makes such purchase possible.

Thus a literature bureau should not be regarded as a sort of permanent extension to a government printing office: it is a temporary (though possibly long-term) intermediary between official and commercial publishing.

EXAMINING THE SHORTAGE OF READING MATERIALS

At an early stage in its work a literature bureau will need to examine the nature and causes of the immediate shortages of literature in its particular area and to devise procedures which, while dealing with these as quickly as possible, will strive to move towards the achievement of the longer-term objectives.

The scale of operations, the priorities, and the particular points of emphasis will naturally vary in different areas. It will assist planning of literature programmes, and the establishment of a suitable organization to give effect to the programme, if we have in our minds some sort of classification of the different needs and problems. The following broad groupings may be found a serviceable point of departure:

The Nature of the Shortages

According to class of reader. (a) Adults, general. (b) Adults in specialized groups, e.g., village nurses, police personnel, urban employees, co-operative society members, etc. (c) Children, (i) school pupils, (ii) private and home readers. The reading needs of groups (a) and (b) may sometimes be divided according to sex.

According to reading ability level. (a) Adult learner readers, i.e., those still at the instruction stage. (b) Threshold literates, i.e., those who have completed a brief instruction stage and can now read, but too laboriously for real pleasure or profit. This group needs plenty of simple and attractive material to encourage it to go on, and to develop and fix its reading ability; easy access to such reading material to encourage continued practice is essential. This group follows stage (b) above for adult readers, but often includes large numbers of young people who have left school before reaching the next stage—functional literacy. (c) Functional literates, i.e. those whose reading ability is stabilized, and whose future ability to gain pleasure and profit from reading depends more on access to material which really interests them than on mechanical difficulties in reading. (d) Advanced literates, i.e. those who read fluently, and whose education is sufficiently in advance of the general run of the population to require separate attention.

This grouping is 'practical' rather than 'scientific', for the provision of literature is apt to be greatly slowed up if over-refinement in our classification is attempted. For practical purposes it does describe the sort of groups one finds; obviously each group merges

into the next, and as the development of a territory progresses the above groups will disappear.

According to type of material. (a) Material of a technical or informative or instructional nature required in connexion with the work of various government departments (health, economic, agricultural) and social welfare development activities, etc., including school textbooks. (b) Material of a less specialized and more popular nature, and of a recreational nature, designed to meet the general reading and cultural needs of the population.

According to language. Some of the material in all the above three groups may be required: (a) In the reader's mother tongue; (b) in a regional lingua franca; and (c) in a world language such as English, French, Spanish.

The Causes of the Shortages

For convenience the causes of literature shortages may be divided into primary and secondary causes, and it is best to consider the simpler secondary causes first.

Secondary. These consist of relatively simple problems, theoretically capable of direct solution given the money and determination, but not providing a permanent solution until primary causes have been attended to. Secondary causes are (not in order of priority):

1. Previous lack of planned and co-ordinated attention to the literature problem resulting in too many departments, organizations, and individuals pulling in different directions and competing for inadequate resources; often associated with lack of funds.
2. Lack of qualified personnel both in official and non-official capacities at some or all of the stages of literature provision, namely editorial, production, and distribution; associated with a lack of understanding of the completely interdependent nature of these three stages.
3. Inadequacy of the physical resources for producing and distributing literature, e.g., printing plant, publishing businesses, book stores, etc.
4. An impracticable degree of emphasis on 'perfectionism'. In the early stages, among people to whom the reading habit is a new thing, the *quantity* of literature and easy access to it is of great importance. Quality is of course of great importance too; no one wishes to see slipshod, poorly produced material, and even

less can anyone condone factually inaccurate material. Nevertheless, there is an inherent contradiction in the fact that the printing process is one of the earliest examples of mass production, whereas hardly any two human beings are exactly alike, having exactly the same needs, tastes, and opinions as regards the material they read. But far less is known about the needs and tastes of a new reading public in areas emerging from illiteracy than in countries which have long publishing traditions; thus, as regards its method of presentation, as opposed to the facts it contains, every piece of literature must be a compromise designed to meet the widest practicable range of readers. Compromise and experiment are essential, and too much insistence of perfection from any one particular point of view, regardless of other needs, slows up the production of that steady flow of literature which is the essence of our problem. Somehow we must maintain a realistic balance between the immediate needs for reading material, and that search for technical, educational, psychological, and graphic perfection which forever delays, saying, 'Not now, but over the next hill . . .'.

Primary. These causes are more complex; their solutions depend not only on the work of a literature bureau but also on other departments of government and central government policy, and the general all-round development of the territory. Their solutions are long term and indirect.

1. Language problems. There are no intrinsic difficulties in providing adequate supplies of literature in any language providing the language unit is large enough. For example, some of the African and Indian language groups include some millions of speakers and in such cases, although the language problem has in the past been a serious cause of literature shortage, it is subordinate to many of the other causes and problems described in this section. But in areas where languages are excessively fragmented (e.g., New Guinea with a population of under two million and several hundred languages) or where, although a common tongue is used, the total population is very small (e.g., Fiji or Samoa) we have primary causes and fundamental problems whose solution may either have to await evolution over many years, or may require policy decisions by the central government on questions of a regional lingua franca or supplementary use of another language. While a literature bureau can provide the government with much useful advice on specialized aspects of the problem it is beyond its function to make such policy decisions. The bureau's function is to develop

techniques and to build up an organization to provide literature in conformity with the government's decisions on such matters.

Another aspect of the language problem is the question of orthography; uniformity of orthography within a single language is obviously highly desirable, but there is room for legitimate differences of opinion about maintaining a balance between what is correct and what is practicable. Here again it is not part of the function of a literature bureau to make arbitrary decisions; its function is to give technical advice on specialized aspects of the matter, but final decisions must remain with the central government.

2. Rapid development of literacy and education. In areas where a large expansion in educational facilities is taking place, together with big increases in the number of literates, the whole context is one of a changing and developing society. Literature shortages thus do not only arise through temporary requirements outstripping the physical means of meeting them. Because of the changing background, such material as is produced tends to become obsolete rather quickly and new literature requirements to meet new developments and changed attitudes and activities, develop equally quickly. The changing conditions are in themselves a prime cause of shortages of suitable literature, and the provision of material resources for producing literature, such as printing machines, etc., or of money, will not reduce the shortage unless the organization for meeting literature requirements bases its methods on the need to think from three to five years' ahead.
3. Lack of general economic development. This is perhaps the major cause of literature shortages, and as such was referred to in the introduction to this paper.

THE ATTITUDES AND APPROACHES OF A LITERATURE BUREAU

In previous paragraphs we have referred to certain long-term objectives and primary causes of literature shortages which underlie more obvious and immediate necessities; for we have indicated that *ad hoc* methods, while filling some immediate needs, do not remove fundamental causes.

A large part of the approach developed by literature bureaux over the last few years stems from a better appreciation of the fact that the series of events leading from the first perception of the need or potential of a particular piece of reading material, down to the time when the finished publication has reached the

hands of its eventual readers, involves the activities of a large number of people, and may follow many different courses.

For this reason, if a literature bureau tries to undertake out of its own resources everything that requires to be done, it will need a very large and expensive establishment—with all the difficulties and problems that that involves. What is worse, the very magnitude and range of its operations will block and wither the innumerable and indispensable contributions that come from many significant but untapped local sources—the gifted author, the small but efficient press, the sympathetic publisher, the interested village storekeeper-cum-bookseller, the understanding official, the talented teacher and the local artist, not forgetting that most important person for whom all these activities are designed, the intelligent reader however humble. These are the sources of the self-renewing streams of a truly locally founded literature, and the function of the bureau is to locate and develop them, and to clear their course. The people concerned cannot all be taken on the staff; but to try and dispense with them, or duplicate their contributions by establishing a group of officials contriving literature to order, is to invite failure.¹

But there is equal danger in the bureau setting its sights too narrow. Every government is only too aware of certain obvious needs for specific pieces of instructional material that are urgently required—the technical departments of a government always experience such needs as aids for their subordinate employees or to assist the people with whom their day-to-day work is immediately concerned—and the problem of school textbooks and material for literacy work is ever with us. These are important matters that must not be overlooked; but if through administrative or financial pressures a literature bureau is required to concentrate solely on filling these needs, the longer-term and more fundamental problems of getting literature provision on to a permanent basis, able to keep up with and match the constantly changing needs of a developing people, will cease to be anybody's particular responsibility, and will be lost sight of. Yet it is just these problems which *must* be solved if we are not to remain in a state where the supply of literature is chronically inadequate for the needs of the situation in quantity, variety, and accessibility.

Thus, though the activities of a bureau must be very wide-ranging in the literature field, through co-operating with what

1. The last two paragraphs express the views, based on experience in British Commonwealth territories, which give rise to some misgivings as to the long-term existence of such large organizations as the Burma Translation Society, although it is realized that current conditions in Burma may offer no alternative at present. [C.G.R.]

already exists its staff is kept relatively small; but it must be expert. Its spirit is that of inspiration and encouragement, backed by informed advice and technical and financial assistance, to any who have something worth while to contribute, rather than that of trying to direct, write, and produce everything itself; and its methods are a sort of half-way house between those of governmental and private enterprise.

Three Stages of Literature Production

The supply of the materials classified above (see pages 99-100) may originate and be dealt with in a number of different ways: (a) the examination and dissemination of information about existing and new materials originally prepared for other areas but useful without adaptation; (b) the translation and adaptation of materials described in (a); (c) the creation of new materials.

As regards (b) and (c) the work to be undertaken may be broadly divided into three stages: (i) the editorial stage which covers the work required up to the conclusion of the preparation of a satisfactory manuscript, including the securing of any illustrations which may be required; (ii) the production stage, covering matters concerned with actual printing; (iii) the distribution stage covering warehousing, primary distribution to selling points, and retail sales.

Cost and the Production Programme

These matters will be dealt with in detail below, but it is important to note that these three stages of literature production are closely interrelated; at each stage alternative decisions and methods are possible, and it is essential therefore to keep all three stages in mind right from the start, and to ensure that decisions made and the methods chosen at each stage are mutually consistent. Probably the best way to ensure this, and to avoid unforeseen and irremediable difficulties cropping up, is to think in terms of costs of the finished production. Our thinking and the questions we must ask ourselves at each stage will then go somewhat as follows:

1. We must decide what group of readers the particular piece of reading material is designed for. It is useless to publish material without being clear in one's mind for whom it is intended—it may suit others and one always hopes it will; but it *must* attempt to meet the needs of some known group, and not fall between several stools.
2. We must then attempt to estimate how many of the readers in

- this group will want to buy the book over a given period, and how much they can afford or will be willing to pay. The buyer may be a government department or the general public, or both; if the former, we must ask ourselves what proportion of the edition the department may wish to give away free, and how this will affect hoped-for general sales among the latter.
3. Thus we get a pointer to the maximum realistic size of edition that can be printed, and what sort of published price this points to. It is useless to print an excessive edition to get artificially low costs.
 4. Having decided on the size of the edition, we must examine the manuscript and decide what quality and method of production, number of illustrations, binding, etc., can be afforded without exceeding the desired price within the optimum size of the edition, remembering to allow for overheads, if this is the practice, (see page 136) and a margin to cover cost of distribution (see section on Costing and Budgeting, page 131 *et seq.*).
 5. If it is then apparent that the desired price can be achieved we can proceed; if not, we must ask ourselves: (a) should we reduce the quality of production, number of illustrations, etc.? (b) can we risk an increase in the size of the edition to reduce costs per copy? (c) should we subsidize—e.g., seek a grant from an appropriate government department or sell at loss out of the bureau's own resources?

By making a habit of thinking in this way a literature bureau will force itself to remain realistic in its outlook and its methods; and when losses (another word for subsidies) have to be incurred (as they often will) they will be planned and controlled rather than fortuitous and unforeseen.

ASSESSING EXISTING MATERIALS FOR USE WITHOUT ADAPTATION

The importance and volume of the work involved in examining and disseminating the information about materials originally prepared for other areas but useful without adaptation depend largely on conditions in the particular area. It may be assumed that most of the material will not be in the reader's mother tongue, and thus this type of work is important chiefly in areas where facility in a regional lingua franca or in a world language is necessary or desirable; the precise nature of the problem varies quite considerably between areas such as Africa, India, Indonesia, and the Pacific Islands.

The type of material concerned will be chiefly that required

for functional literates and for advanced literates (see page 99).

The problem is that because of lack of development in the area too few people, whether teachers and instructors, or readers, have an opportunity to keep abreast of the material available, and the turnover in sales is too small to enable booksellers to maintain a satisfactory range; yet in the early stages of literature development access to such material or information about it, is important. Literature bureaux perform a useful task in meeting the need.

Sources of Material

Normally, anyone concerned with literature provision maintains some personal contacts with people engaged in similar work in other areas, and will have some acquaintance with the appropriate literature available and being produced. Material is obtained through such personal contacts and exchanges with other areas, through the receipt of inspection copies from publishers, and by direct purchase out of bureau funds allocated for the purpose. In an area of any size, however, if the needs of the many different bodies and individuals concerned with the literature problem are not co-ordinated there is a danger of an excessive number of copies of each title being required, thus leading to waste and unnecessary expense. The literature bureau performs a valuable service by acting as the central recipient of the material and then disseminating information about it, with inspection copies where necessary, to other appropriate bodies and individuals in the territory. Various methods have been used to do this:

1. The bureau maintains a specialized library at its headquarters where anyone can come and examine the material available. In large areas subsidiary libraries can be maintained, e.g., at headquarters of regional literature committees (see page 122).
2. The bureau maintains an information service concerning the material, enabling people to write in requesting information about what is available on any particular subject, and to be sent advice and inspection copies.
3. By the publication of occasional mimeographed circulars addressed to those particularly concerned, and by the preparation of reviews for insertion in local periodicals, etc., the bureau maintains a flow of information on its own initiative.
4. Where local literature committees are satisfactorily established, the bureau arranges a supply of materials to them for appraisal.
5. Under the book-box system supplies of appropriate material are sent from time to time to strategic places, e.g., rural libraries, training institutions, individual specialists, particular govern-

ment departments (i.e., health, education, and agriculture), for examination, comment, appraisal and try-out.

6. In the course of this work a supply of valuable information not only goes out from the bureau, but also flows back to it; the various people who have examined the material send their comments to the bureau, which thereby builds up a unique body of information available to all. The receipt of such information is supplemented by some literature bureaux by competitions for essays of the 'Books I have Enjoyed' type, and for the writing of reviews.

TRANSLATION AND ADAPTATION

Several aspects of the question of translations are somewhat controversial; where there is an obvious and serious shortage of reading material of any kind, people sometimes tend to think in terms of extensive translations of the classics of older literatures, others emphasize the need to develop new and original material indigenous to the area.

However, the search for, and the development of, original literature takes time; so in times of urgent shortages translations are useful. In areas where languages are excessively fragmented, translations may be required in considerable quantity.

Translations may be carried out by the bureau's own staff or done in co-operation with outside agencies. Most bureaux use both methods, and the proportions in which the methods are used will depend on circumstances such as the volume of work to be done, the size of the bureau's staff, and the opportunities for securing competent outside assistance. However, it should be remembered that an important long-term objective of the bureau is to develop and spread all facilities for promoting literature throughout the territory rather than to try and build up a large central organization which does everything itself; thus the way the bureau uses its own staff for the provision of translations and adaptations is of some importance.

Finding and Training Translators

There is a world of difference between good translations, which achieve style as well as accuracy, and a rough literal translation of the words used; the former are not easy to make, and a good deal of training and experience is necessary. One of the important functions of a bureau, therefore, apart from the direct responsibility

for providing certain translations, is to give training to others in this work. Thus we may find three types of people engaged in translation work attached to the staff of the bureau: (a) A highly competent and experienced specialist fully conversant with the many problems, in general charge of translation work. (b) Other subordinate members of the permanent staff of the bureau, having the responsibility of providing routine translations, and working under the general direction of the person in charge. (c) A number of people attached to the bureau, engaged on a short-term contract (e.g., for two years), undergoing training in the art of translation. These short-term employees will be selected on evidence of suitability for and interest in this kind of work, and a general interest in literature provision work. Some of them may be on secondment from the various social service departments, such as education, health, agriculture, etc., to which they will return on completion of their training, to assist in departmental work of this nature.

Experience gained through this kind of arrangement is invaluable. Skill in translation, and an appreciation of the problems involved, is spread well outside the circles of the bureau itself; those thus drawn together provide between them a knowledge of a variety of the languages of the territory, and mutual discussion leads to a far better appreciation of the various problems involved. The trainees are constantly surrounded by the other work going on in the literature bureau, and a large quantity of literature of various kinds, and thereby gain a wider appreciation of and interest in the whole problem of literature provision, which, when they go back to their own areas or substantive posts, is a great stimulus to literature provision. People trained in this way can also provide valuable service later as secretaries of local literature committees.

By organizing in this way a literature bureau can provide the translations needed in its own work, and can also provide a central service for the other departments of government. Services so provided should be restricted to the careful translation of more or less important material of a fairly permanent nature; the translation of ephemeral day-to-day material, e.g., news bulletins, pamphlets, etc., is the work of an information department or similar body. A literature bureau working under the urgent pressure and tight schedules required for the translation of the latter type of material cannot give proper attention to training and solution of difficult translation problems.

Apart from providing translation services out of its own staff resources, the bureau can build up and maintain a panel of names

and addresses of people in the territory able and willing to do translation work on a fee basis (some of these will be its own ex-trainees). The bureau in this way acts as a clearing house for other government agencies in arranging for translation work to be done for them by members of its panel of translators.

Literature Committees

In larger or more populous areas, where regional literature committees have been established, these committees can perform a very useful function in recommending works for translation, and securing satisfactory translations, for their own regions; they work on a smaller scale, but on the same lines just described for the literature bureau.¹ Their functions here link up with the appraisal work mentioned above (see page 106).

Some bureaux have found a mutual advantage in arranging for translations of some kinds of work to be done by the pupils in the upper classes of primary schools and secondary schools under the supervision of the teacher, as part of a term's or a year's language work. The discussion and guidance and combined effort which is possible under these conditions is of considerable benefit to all concerned, often produces remarkably good translations, and helps to give an air of reality to the language work in the schools. A suitable fee may be paid in to the school funds in return for the work done.

Payment for Translations

The cost of translations made by the bureau's own staff is of course debited to the bureau's own votes, but translations made by the other methods may be paid for on a fee basis. In general, in literature bureau work, the extensive use of the fee method of payment is a valuable way of keeping the bureau's own staff from growing too large and unwieldy, and for securing that spread of interest in literature provision among as many people as possible. As will be seen later, fees paid may either be calculated into the total costs of producing the book and reflected in its purchase price (so making the eventual recovery of the fees possible) or they may be charged to a special subhead of the bureau's vote and written off as administrative expenses—a form of subsidy on the book. A decision on the question of fees to be paid will depend

1. Most of the vernacular work of the East African Literature Bureau is carried out through regional literature committees. [C.G.R.]

largely on the nature of the material and it is impossible to lay down hard and fast rules; as Wilson says in his article on the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau.¹ '... for the Central Government at Lusaka always allowed the greatest possible responsibility to the committee in its work; and thus this committee, in a spirit highly unofficial, encouraged strange people to go on being strange, paid authors and translators and the like in accordance with no known rules except those of common sense, indulged in trade, and make a lot of mistakes.'

In general, translation fees are lower than normal author's royalties and a fee equivalent to between $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 10 per cent of the *production cost* of the book may serve as a guide. The lower rates will be paid for rough literal translations required merely to give an idea of what a manuscript is about, with a view to possible adaptation, than would be paid for a translation of high quality ready for publication. Fees must obviously take some account of the standing of the translator.

Adaptations

In practice, adaptation in smaller or greater degree nearly always accompanies translation. The general methods for securing satisfactory adaptations of books, and for paying the costs involved, follow much the same lines as has just been described for translations; in some cases adaptations will be done within the bureau, in other cases the assistance of outside people will be sought. Payment will usually be on a fee basis and obviously must vary according to the extent and difficulty of the adaptation required. A fee based on somewhere from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the *retail* cost of the book may serve as a guide.

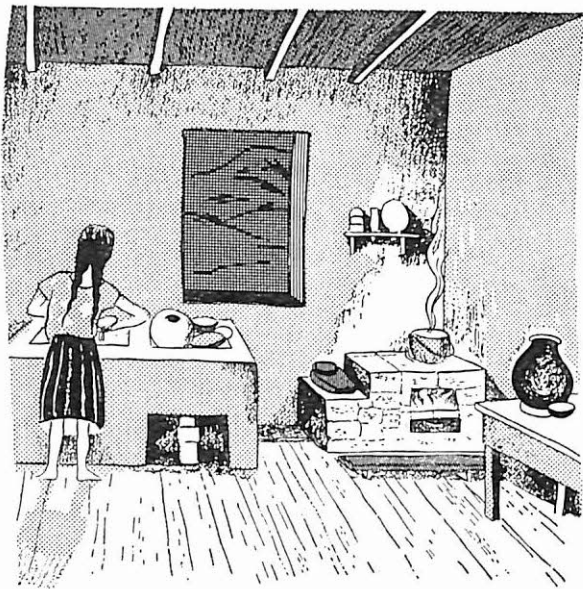
THE CREATION OF NEW MATERIAL

New material may be considered in the following ways:

The nature of the material. (a) Informative; (b) recreational. These materials may be divided into basic and supplementary material; an explanation of the use of these terms is given below (see pages 112 and 115).

Source of material—by sponsorship. (a) Material officially initiated

1. G. H. Wilson, *Africa*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1950.



6

7



Figs. 6 and 7. The reader should recognize familiar rooms and implements.

[6] Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, *La casa rural*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1952.

[7] Puerto Rico, Departamento de Instrucción División de Educación de la Comunidad, *Alimentos para su familia*, Puerto Rico, 1952.

and sponsored by and required for the use of specific government departments; (b) material sponsored by quasi-public or private bodies, e.g., literature committees, co-operative societies, welfare agencies, etc.; (c) material suggested and sponsored by agencies having extra-territorial interests, e.g., large publishers, Unesco, international literature organizations, and so on; (d) material initiated and sponsored by the literature bureau itself (this includes material received under (d) below).

Source of material—by authorship. (a) Material prepared within government departments; (b) material prepared by the bureau's own staff on its own initiative or at the request of one of the agencies mentioned in (b) above; (c) material commissioned from an outside author at the request of a government; (d) manuscripts freely submitted from local authors and other outside sources.

Various permutations and combinations of these three sets of factors will occur but it will be helpful to a clearer understanding of the various procedures if a word is said here about the use of the terms 'basic' and 'supplementary' literature. These terms, though rather arbitrarily chosen, are useful to describe a situation which does in fact exist.

Basic Literature

By basic literature is meant material which is considered to be absolutely necessary for carrying on the general administration and development of the territory. It will include a minimum number of school textbooks and readers for the territory's schools and training institutions and various handbooks for the employees of public or quasi-public services; in addition there may be a certain amount of general material for adult reading on urgent public problems such as health, agriculture, commerce. Since such

Figs. 8 and 9. The South Pacific Commission shortens and simplifies books on local history for its new readers. →

- [8] Ivan Champion, *Across New Guinea*, London, Melbourne, Longmans Green, in association with the South Pacific Commission Literature Bureau, 1955. (From Ivan Champion, *Across New Guinea from the Fly to the Sepik*, London, Constable, 1932.)
- [9] Camilla Wedgwood, *The Iri*, London, Melbourne, Longmans Green, in association with the South Pacific Commission Literature Bureau, 1955. (From C. G. Seligman, *Melanesians of British New Guinea*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1910.)

THE SECOND JOURNEY: SUCCESS

But Karius walked quietly ahead, holding out his arms and calling out all the words of peace that he knew. Then one of the village



men understood that he was not an enemy, and soon they all made a big feast of welcome.

Through the whole trip they never fired their rifles at any person, nor did they ever take food without paying for it.

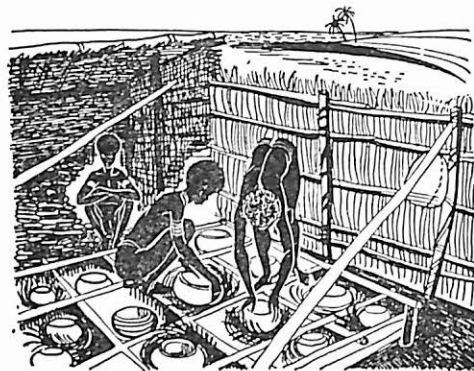
Now they decided to try going down the

8

THE HIRI

captains are in charge. Everyone is gay and happy.

While the men have been busy building the lakatoi the women have been busy making pots. After the lakatoi have been tested, the



cargo of pots is put on board. First the pots of the baditauna and the doritauna are put into the 'hold', or middle part of the lakatoi.

Sometimes the pots are packed into a crate to prevent them from being broken if the

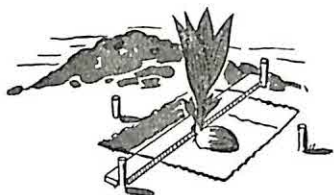
9

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

Tjara menanamkan bibit bertunas.

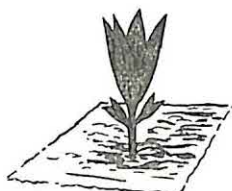
TANAMKANLAH BIBIT BERTUNAS PADA PUSAT LUBANGNJA.

Supaja ini dikerdjakan betul, pasanglah papan ukuran tsb. sehingga takuk2 udjungnja berada pada kaju2nja, jang tadi kita kasih tinggal tertanam ditanah itu, lalu batangnja bibit bertunas itu ditaruh pada takuk pertengahan, sedang bidjinja bibit itu duduk dalam suatu lekuk jang bertjojokan pada rupa bidji itu. Tanah diaturkan berkeliling bidji itu sehingga tunas bisa berdiri.



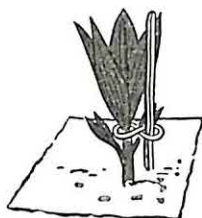
Bilamana semua bibit2 tunas sudah ditanamkan demikian maka seharusnja tunas2 itu berbaris lurus sekali.

Untuk menjempurkan lurusnja baris2, maka kita menengok melalui dulu baris pertama, lalu demikian juga baris melintang.



Tutupi bidji2 bibit dengan tanah jang ditindis baik, tetapi tunasnja hampir semuanya lepas dari tanah.

Sebagai sokongan bagi tunas, maka diikat longgar2an pada sebatang pandjang jang tertanam dalam tanah.



PINDAHKAN BIBIT ITU PADA WAKTU HUDJAN.

10

11



Figs. 10 and 11. The improvement of agriculture is one of the most useful and popular subjects.

- [10] W. V. D. Pieris, *Kelapa sumber Kekayaan* (Wealth from the Coconut), Sydney, Ure Smith in association with the South Pacific Commission Literature Bureau, 1955.
[11] W. Cottrell-Dormer, *Rice*, London, Melbourne, Longmans Green, in association with the South Pacific Commission Literature Bureau, 1956.

material, by definition, is considered essential, its procurement is likely to be financed out of public funds, and, because of its nature and purpose, a large proportion of it may be given away free, or sold at subsidized prices. It will often be officially written or edited by the sponsoring department and certainly subject to its approval. The draft and finished manuscripts of basic material may, at the request of the sponsoring body, be prepared by anyone of the agencies mentioned above (see paragraph entitled 'Source of material—by authorship'), and the bureau's experience and technical services may be called on at every stage; nevertheless, since the material has to fulfil as precisely as possible certain definite requirements of the sponsoring body, final approval of the manuscript rests firmly with that body and a reflection of this is found in the costing methods to be used (see pages 131-40).

Supplementary Materials

By supplementary literature we mean all the great array of material which is highly desirable and valuable, but which, for a multiplicity of reasons, it is difficult to finance out of public funds. This can best be described by giving a few examples. In most countries, while the government will ensure there is a minimum number of textbooks available to meet the minimum requirements of the schools, everyone who has anything at all to do with education can think of much additional supplementary matter which it would be most valuable to have available, but however strongly we may feel about it, it is difficult to assert that it is the sort of thing which could be printed entirely at government expense; and equally, opportunity of choice implies some ability or willingness to pay for one's choice. Again, in many schools much time may be spent on teaching children to read and write a lingua franca or an international language; but where are the pupils to get the books which will assist them to retain and develop this ability after they have left school. Vocabularies, dictionaries, phrase books, and general reading material are valuable and desirable for adults but how can we say what is essential or basic, and what is a matter for personal choice, i.e. supplementary. In a subject such as health education there is endless variety and possibility of presentation. In the literature for even a single topic such as anti-malarial measures, or nutrition problems, many different approaches are possible; we can use a simple informative narrative style, or we can follow a diagrammatic or cartoon approach; fictional and dramatic treatment both have value also. All these different approaches can be used to convey information, and each will be

more effective in some particular circumstances than in others. There is great variety also in the reading needs of different sections of the population such as village women, sophisticated town dwellers, plantation labourers, religious groups and newly literate villagers. One has only to think of the possibilities for literature presented by all these different subjects, styles of treatment, and readers to realize the great range which may be included under the term 'supplementary' literature; and of course the term includes the recreational and 'literacy' reading material for adults. But with the best will in the world it is hardly practicable for a government to produce and distribute all this free of charge. Somehow a rough commonsense dividing line must be drawn between 'basic' and 'supplementary' material; this can well be done by leaving the initiation and sponsorship of basic material to the government department most closely concerned, which will also bear much of the financial responsibility, although it will make use of the literature bureau's services in producing other material (see pages 127 and 134). Responsibility for the supplementary material rests with the literature bureau.

The initiative in sponsoring supplementary materials should rest with the bureau because, if such material is to be produced in any quantity it must prove attractive and sufficiently adapted to the tastes and needs of the reading public to encourage the public to buy. Unless supplementary material is to be wholly financed out of public funds this is the only possible method. But success depends on a knowledge of reading tastes, ability to pay, varieties of presentation possible, effectiveness of the distribution system and other similar matters; in other words, publishing 'flair'. Such a combination of technical knowledge and accumulated experience is built up by the bureau in the course of its work; it is uneconomic and unrealistic to expect to find this same experience in a large number of different government technical departments.

FUNCTIONS AND METHODS OF THE LITERATURE BUREAU

It is now possible to begin to review the ways in which the literature bureau organizes to meet the various requirements so far described.

For Basic Materials

As regards the basic materials as defined on page 112 the bureau does not initiate these materials, though it may well feed the

various departments with ideas; nor does it write them for the departments concerned, unless specially requested to do so.

Responsibility for the initiation and final approval of the manuscripts remains with the sponsoring departments, and the bureau supports and assists their work in the following manner:

1. By assembling a central pool of information and advice about what material the government departments and the other public and semi-public agencies are planning and preparing; and also about what material of a similar nature to that proposed is already available from other sources, which could be used as it stands or could serve as a basis for adaptation.

A wasteful and uneconomic feature often found is the constant overlap of effort by different agencies through lack of information about what others are doing. The centralized service of a literature bureau is valuable for overcoming this problem. Government departments and other agencies concerned should be willing to supply the bureau with brief information about what they are doing and planning in the literature field, and it is helpful if the bureau can prepare and circulate a simple mimeographed half-yearly record of the main activities in progress, and promote the exchange of draft manuscripts in appropriate cases.

2. By providing specialized editorial service and advice as regards grading of the materials (including simplification of language where appropriate) and adapting manuscripts to the needs of the particular groups of readers for whom a piece of material is primarily intended.

While skilled technical officers will prepare the basic technical manuscripts as regards facts, etc., they do not always have the necessary time or special knowledge required to present them in a manner appropriate to the needs of the readers for whom they are intended. They also rarely have the necessary knowledge of how the various levels of literacy attainment are proportionally distributed and changing through the population. This kind of knowledge, however, is essential for ensuring that a particular piece of literature fulfils the purpose for which it is intended, for deciding on the best form of presentation, and for estimating an appropriate size of edition. The accumulation of this knowledge requires the full-time specialized attention which a literature bureau can provide, and it is uneconomic to expect every department of government to duplicate the necessary specialist information; but for the best results the procedure must be one of mutual co-operation, not of dictation by either side.

3. By providing assistance with translations where these are called for. The methods required to provide this service were described on pages 107-10.
4. By providing technical services in the provision of layouts, illustrations, and advice on length, format, and arrangements of manuscripts so as to secure maximum economy and effectiveness in presentation and production.

The bureau will need at least one staff member with a specialist skill of this kind; failure to take account of technical problems involved in the eventual layout and printing of literature is a frequent cause of wasteful expenditure, and it is quite uneconomic for every department to try and provide these specialist skills. As regards illustrations, the bureau need not necessarily maintain a staff artist; it can maintain a panel of names in much the same way as recommended in connexion with translators. However, if the volume of work justifies the employment of a full-time artist the bureau can become a most useful agency for training and developing the services of local artists.

5. By arranging for the printing and publication of the finally approved materials through whatever agency appears to be most appropriate to the particular case.

The question of the best method of printing and publishing a particular piece of material needs to be considered in each case on its own merits, and a literature bureau with its centralized body of general and technical information is the best agency to decide this question. The bureau should maintain a list of printing resources available within the territory and should know what kind of work each is best equipped to do. The bureau will also build up the necessary contacts with commercial printers and publishers outside the territory when internal resources are inadequate. Where a major obstacle to a substantial increase in the provisions of suitable literature is the lack of printing facilities, it is usually better and cheaper to use several printers rather than expand the resources of one printer. It is often better still to deal with publishers rather than directly with printers, for the former have access to many different printers, and know which of them is best equipped to perform different tasks. The bureau will need to be provided with the necessary funds to pay for printing or to guarantee publication, as may be appropriate (see the section on the publications fund, page 133); in the case of material required specially for a technical department it may recover from that department in due course an appropriate proportion of the funds expended (see pages 127 and 134). There are considerable drawbacks and dangers in the bureau establishing its own printing plant,

and this should only be done after careful consideration of possible alternatives (see pages 128-9).

6. The bureau, on behalf of other government departments deals with various questions of copyright which may arise from time to time.
7. When the materials described in this section have finally been produced, the bureau takes copies into its own general distribution system and organizes distribution on behalf of other government departments.

For Supplementary Materials

As regards supplementary materials, both informational and general recreational, the bureau: (a) acts in the manner described in the preceding paragraphs, and, on its own initiative as the responsible body, secures the provision of reading matter of a more general nature for the public; (b) provides similar services in respect of publications submitted from outside agencies where these are considered to be of sufficiently wide value to make a worth-while contribution to the over-all literature needs of the territory.

Competitions. In promoting the provision of supplementary materials the bureau initiates and supervises the conduct of competitions for the writing of manuscripts either directly on its own account or in co-operation with regional literature committees; it also provides a centre for the receipt of free-lance manuscripts by local writers and for advising the latter. One of the problems in developing local writing is that many people with the potential talent are inexperienced; they need advice on arrangement of manuscripts, possible treatments of subjects, suitable length, etc. Authorship is of course an art; but even the most interesting piece of writing requires a certain minimum understanding of the mechanical and financial necessities of printing and publishing before it can be produced. The bureau performs this important function partly by issuing little pamphlets giving hints to authors and advice on the submission of manuscripts; and partly by friendly advice and encouragement to individual authors who submit manuscripts.

LITERATURE PRODUCTION

Questions concerning the dissemination of information about existing material, and the production of translations and adaptations, were discussed in earlier sections; matters briefly analysed in the sections on the creation of new material and the functions and methods of a literature bureau now need further amplification, but what is said in the present section may also be applied in appropriate cases to the use of existing materials and to translations and adaptations.

The development of any piece of reading material may for convenience be divided into three stages — editorial, production, and distribution. Each of these stages involves different kinds of activity and different specialist skills; each involves and impinges on the work of many other people; and at each stage there is the possibility of choice between different methods and courses. But the three stages are closely interrelated, and the methods and courses chosen at one are affected by, and affect those made at the other stages. An important function of a literature bureau is to utilize its specialist knowledge and experience to effect harmony between the various decisions made.

EDITORIAL STAGE

This covers the work up to the conclusion of the preparation of a satisfactory manuscript, and includes preliminary discussion, drafting of first manuscript, subsequent polishing and finalizing of the manuscript, preparation of illustrations, and initial thoughts on size of edition and method of production and distribution.

A smooth, quick, and economic production is most likely to be achieved if the sponsors of a manuscript seek the bureau's specialist advice, and the advice of literature committees when appropriate, as early as possible, preferably before or during the preparation of the first draft manuscript. The type of advice sought will be in connexion with matters described in the section on the creation of new material; decisions as to authorship (see page 112) can also be made at this stage.

At this stage, rather than later, some conclusions should be reached in relation to the manuscript regarding matters referred to under 'Cost and the production programme' (pages 104-5) and 'Basic literature' and 'Supplementary material' (pages 112-16), so that the presentation and treatment of the material can be properly related to its purpose and method of distribution, and

the ultimate size of the print number may be given realistic consideration.

Another matter which should be given consideration at an early stage is the question of illustrations, if these are required. These may be provided by the sponsoring body, the bureau's own staff, or commissioned from outside. It must be remembered that there are many types of illustration—line, half-tone, black-and-white, colour, etc.—and the decisions taken as to which will be used will affect, and be affected by, materials and methods used in the printing of the book, which in turn must be considered in relation to printing resources available, final desired costs, etc. Decisions should, therefore, be taken early rather than late.

Thus full and early discussion is desirable between the sponsors and the bureau. The sponsors may submit to the bureau a rough draft manuscript which should be factually complete, but need not be in the final form intended for readers. The bureau then prepares a suggested layout and treatment, with a schedule amplifying its suggestions and giving reasons and estimated costs. This is returned to the sponsors, and negotiations continue in this way until mutual agreement is reached (see also pages 104-5).

The above paragraphs refer to the procedure for material normally sponsored by various government departments. This will usually be basic material, though there will be some supplementary material also; but the bureau will also be initiating and sponsoring material of its own, chiefly supplementary material—indeed the long-established bureaux produce the great majority of their material on their own responsibility. The same amount of preliminary discussion will not be called for, since the bureau already has much of the necessary information at its disposal; nevertheless, when the bureau is initiating material, either prepared by itself or submitted to it from an author or group, it must take careful steps to ensure that such material is not in conflict with the needs and policies of any government department on whose work it may impinge. A commonsense working arrangement is to agree that final approval and shouldering of production costs of basic material rests with the sponsoring body; final approval and costs of supplementary material remain with the bureau. Both have everything to lose and nothing to gain by not heeding the advice of the other.

Earlier paragraphs in this section tended to emphasize the procedure at the editorial stage for dealing with material designed to meet the special needs of government departments, for it is in this field that it is very important to appreciate the bureau's role

vis-a-vis other departments, and to understand its *modus operandi*; moreover, this type of work often forms a rather large proportion of a literature bureau's early productions. Nevertheless it is important not to overlook the bureau's special position in relation to more general reading matter for youth outside the schools, and for the recreational and cultural needs of adults. Official books of instruction and exhortation are but a small part of a people's full reading needs, and the bureau has a special responsibility in the matter of providing for the remainder, which does not fall easily within the purview of the usual government departments. It will be the bureau's duty to locate, encourage and stimulate local authors, and to provide them with the necessary technical and literacy advice, and generally to act as a focus to whom authors and publishers alike can look for advice and guidance.

Regional Literature Committees

Depending on the size, nature, and population of the region, the bureau can decentralize some of its work by establishing and working through regional literature committees, and can in turn seek support and guidance through the establishment of a central literature committee. The functions of these committees are, at any rate in their initial stages, advisory to the literature bureau, and their area of operation may be divided on a linguistic, cultural or geographical basis, whichever appears most suitable. The members will be voluntary, chosen for their interest, ability, and natural leadership in such work. Really busy regional committees would require a paid secretary (full-time or part-time) who may be a full-time district member of the bureau staff if the amount of work warrants it.

Broadly speaking, the most useful functions for such committees include: to receive and appraise manuscripts submitted, and to forward them when appropriate with their advice to the bureau; to initiate recommendations to the bureau for publications considered to be required or likely to be successful in the region; to keep the bureau informed of possible authors, artists, translators and printing resources; to receive and appraise publications and manuscripts submitted by the bureau, and to make recommendations regarding local use or translation or adaptation; to assist with the preparation of translations and adaptations of suitable materials as agreed after discussion with the bureau; to organize and conduct competitions for writing, in co-operation with the bureau; to keep in review problems concerning book distribution within their area, and to advise the bureau thereon; to act as a

library committee for regional public libraries; to maintain a library or showroom of reading materials, as an aid to local educationists, book distributors, etc.

Naturally the scale and scope of the work of literature committees will depend on local circumstances; realism will be added to their work if they have some funds of their own to administer. The central literature bureau will often find it advantageous to try to accompany the decentralization of some of its work through literature committees with appropriate financial grants. Grants have been made by various bureaux for the following purposes: to pay an honorarium to a part-time secretary, when the secretary is not an employee of the bureau; to cover expenses of convening committee meetings, organizing and judging writing competitions, and awarding prizes, and for stationery, postage, etc.; to equip and maintain a regional showroom or library; to aid the development of a regional book depot, where justified.

The degree to which the bureau is able and willing to decentralize in this manner will depend on local circumstances and resources, and it is not practicable here to do more than indicate methods that have been used. In practice it is beneficial to the whole business of literature promotion for the bureau to *believe* in decentralization in this way, and to try to practise it, even if only in a very small way, as soon as possible after its establishment.

PRINTING AND PUBLISHING STAGE

The completion of the editorial stage is followed by the production stage, i.e., the stage where the material is reproduced by one of the many printing processes available. These operations can be grouped into those where the material will be reproduced by: (a) one of the several 'processing' means available, e.g., spirit or stencil duplicating, or reproduction by one of the small modern offset machines, etc.; (b) by one of the normal printing methods.

The decision as to which of these methods to use, while often in practice governed by the printing resources available, is theoretically determined by the nature of the material, and the expert guidance of the literature bureau in selecting the right method is most valuable here. Many of the small modern offset machines are capable of doing remarkably good work with excellent illustrations at very economical rates, especially when used in conjunction with other small 'office' machines such as electric typewriters with interchangeable type faces and justified letters and lines. Even so, such machines are not suitable for every kind

of work and the decision as to which to use requires some experience in balancing one factor against another. But, generally speaking, for materials of short compass, small initial edition size, and requiring a good deal of illustration, these machines are of great value; and this value is enhanced in conditions where much experimental material is required. For other purposes it is usually best to use normal methods of printing.

Broadly speaking there are two main ways in which the publication and distribution of printed material may be secured:

The Guarantee System. The bureau works in co-operation with and through responsible commercial publishers who arrange printing, publication and distribution of the material under certain mutually agreed conditions and guarantees.

The Direct Print System. In this method the bureau acts as its own publisher, making its own arrangements for printing through one of the channels mentioned below, and subsequently making its own arrangements for distribution.

It may make subsequent matters clearer if we first compare separately and in some detail each stage in the production and distribution of a book, noting the points where the direct print system and the guarantee system differ, and noting in particular the work done by the publisher under the guarantee system and which would have to be undertaken by the bureau if the services of a publisher were not used. In some countries circumstances may make it difficult or impossible to take full advantage of the benefits to be gained from co-operating with experienced publishers.

Where the material is simple, from the technical aspect of printing, and where the question of extraneous markets is not of great importance and where the ratio of copies intended for free distribution is high in relation to those intended for sale, it will usually be both quicker and cheaper to use the Direct Print System.

Nevertheless the following paragraphs will indicate the role of a literature bureau, and may point the way to long-term objectives for newly established bureaux.

A Comparison of the Guarantee and Direct Print Systems

Stage I

Guarantee system. The bureau brings the manuscript up to the stage where it is ready for production as indicated in the previous section. In so doing, it will pay any costs involved in the preparation of the manuscript, e.g., final typing, cost of preparation of

illustrations, and any fees to be paid to the author. Some or all of these costs, at the discretion of the bureau, may be recovered from the publisher before publication, and amounts so recovered will be incorporated by the publisher in the final price of the book. (Amounts not so recovered must be regarded as a subsidy towards the cost of the book.)

Direct print system. As for Stage I in the guarantee system, except that costs involved in the preparation of the manuscript cannot be recovered in a lump sum from the publisher, since there is no publisher to recover from. It may be decided to include them in the selling price eventually fixed for the book, in which case they will be recovered slowly, as the book sells, and will only be recovered in full if the entire edition is sold. Thus the total amount of actual cash outstanding at a given time, consequent on operations at Stage I of book production, is larger under the direct print system than under the guarantee system.

Stage II

Guarantee system. At the second stage, the bureau submits the material to a selected publisher, giving a general indication of the format desired, the number to print, costs paid so far which the publisher will be expected to refund to the bureau, royalties if any (which it is suggested should be payable to the author), trade discount proposed for booksellers, the retail price which it is hoped can be achieved taking into account the foregoing proposals, and preliminary suggestions as to the details of the guarantees which the bureau proposes to offer to the publisher. The usual nature of the guarantee is that the publisher agrees to produce an edition of agreed size at his own expense, and to market the book at an agreed price; while the bureau agrees to purchase at trade price whatever balance of the edition remains unsold at the end of a mutually agreed period, which is usually between two and four years. Variations of this arrangement chiefly concern the guarantee of only part of an edition (see pages 130-1).

Direct print system. Matters to be considered and worked out will be as for Stage II of the guarantee system, but the bureau assembles these data for its own later use instead of passing them to a publisher.

Stage III

Guarantee system. The publisher then considers all the various technical details involved in producing the manuscript, calculates what markets he thinks may exist outside those envisaged by the bureau, and decides how many copies, if any, he feels he can be responsible for at his own financial risk in addition to the number guaranteed by the bureau; the publisher then obtains quotations for the total print number from printers.

Direct print system. The bureau itself will have to obtain quotes for printing from one or more printers, and will of course not have the benefit of the publishers' specialist experience and contacts in selecting a printer and in finding additional markets. The bureau will have to provide the printer as best it can with detailed specifications regarding format, layout, binding, paper qualities and weights, etc.—matters which are normally attended to by the publisher. These matters can be left to the printer, especially good ones, but, except with simple materials, it is sometimes risky to do so—rather like embarking on a building project without the services of an architect. A reputable publisher carries specialist staff for the purpose, whereas very few printers do.

Stage IV

Guarantee system. The publisher now replies to the proposals made by the bureau at Stage II, accepting some, suggesting alternatives to others, giving specifications of how he proposes to print the book, indicating what additional markets he hopes to find and what price reductions these will affect, and quotes what retail prices can be achieved for different size print numbers and in various styles of production.

Direct print system. The bureau itself must now interpret the printers' quotes obtained at Stage III, and either accept some of them or devise alternative proposals if the original ideas suggested at Stage II have proved impracticable. (This process is a highly technical one in which the experience of a competent publisher is invaluable.) It should be noted also that except in rather unusual circumstances it is exceedingly difficult for the bureau to assess markets for materials elsewhere than in its own immediate area, and even if such an assessment is achieved it will later prove very difficult to market the material in these other areas without the intermediary assistance of a publisher who has ready-made dis-

tribution channels. A printer, as opposed to a publisher, has nothing to do with marketing and can give no assistance here.

Stage V

Guarantee system. The bureau now considers the reply received from the publisher at Stage IV, in relation to the proposals set out at Stage II, and either accepts the publisher's proposals or revises its own requirements in the light of suggestions made by the publisher. The negotiations at Stage V continue until a mutually satisfactory arrangement is reached; the bureau then gives the publisher a formal guarantee for the publication of the material, in one or other of the terms suggested at Stage II or in the description of the modified system (pages 130-1). Guarantees given to publishers by the bureau in respect of basic materials prepared for other government departments will be offset by an undertaking to the bureau from the department concerned to take up the number of copies during the period of the guarantee which the department has indicated as meeting its needs.

Direct print system. As Stage IV.

Stage VI

Guarantee system. The publisher now produces the book in terms of the agreement arrived at in Stage V, at his own financial outlay. The publisher marks up the copy for the printer, places the order with the printer, supervises all technical matters arising, and is responsible for the satisfactory production of the book.

Direct print system. In this case the bureau will place the order with the printer and will have to pay all costs incurred. Matters arising during the course of production will be referred by the printer to the bureau instead of to a publisher, and the bureau must have therefore the qualified staff and time available to undertake this responsibility which will be complicated and time consuming as the number of publications increases.

Stage VII

Guarantee system. On completion of printing, the copies of the book are taken over from the printer and warehoused by the publisher, who now arranges primary distribution, receives all monies from sales, affects all payments of royalties if any, maintains stock records, and submits periodical stock returns to the bureau indicating the number of copies remaining in stock. In view of the

fact that the publisher has financed the production of the book (Stage VI), has refunded to the bureau agreed costs incurred in the preparation of the material (Stage I), and the retail price of the book has been fixed by mutual agreement between the publisher and the bureau, profits from the sale of the book are retained by the publisher. Part of these profits go to the cost of maintaining the publisher's establishment, i.e., the overhead expenses involved in running any business, and another part is the publisher's net profit without which he would not be in business at all. If the bureau also wishes to make some profit, this can only be achieved by raising the selling price of the book.

Direct print system. On completion of printing, the bureau itself takes over the stocks of the book and must make its own arrangements for storage, advertising, distribution, receipt of monies, payment of royalties, accounting for stock, etc. If any allowance for profit has been included in the retail price of the book, this will be retained by the bureau (see page 131 *et seq.*)

Stage VIII

Guarantee system. At the end of the period of guarantee (usually between two and four years): (a) if the book is moving steadily, but perhaps not quite as quickly as originally anticipated, publishers are usually willing to extend the guarantee period for an agreed time without calling on the bureau to buy up the unsold copies; (b) if the book has not been successful, the bureau buys the unsold balance of the edition at a price not exceeding trade price—the bureau can make its own arrangements to market these, or can write them off at its discretion; (c) if the book has proved successful and shows signs of selling out before the guarantee period has expired, the publishers will advise the bureau of this in good time, and will co-operate in considering the advisability of a second edition. The publisher should normally undertake a reprint at his own expense without a further guarantee from the bureau.

Direct print system. Stage VIII does not arise.

Printing of Materials under Direct Print System

When the direct print system is used the bureau may arrange to have the material printed: (a) by the bureau's own plant; (b) by the government printer, if one exists; (c) by commercial printers within or without the territory.

The shortage of printing resources is often a difficult problem in areas where the services of a literature bureau are required and consequently the temptation for the bureau to set up its own printing plant is considerable. Nevertheless there are good reasons for exercising caution before doing so, chief among which are the following:

1. To do so is not in harmony with long-term objectives of encouraging others to participate in provision of literature, as described earlier.
2. Modern printing methods and machines are very complex and various; an adequate plant is expensive and requires a high and continuous output to repay its capital investment and maintenance. Consequently there is danger of the bureau's own plant falling between two stools—it may be too limited to meet a variety of needs and to do all the work required economically, or the plant may be too large to be used economically in relation to output and idle machinery is an expensive luxury.
3. The maintenance and operation of printing plant is a highly specialized job and often requires, especially in tropical areas, specially prepared buildings and specialized staff. The larger the bureau staff, and the more complex its organization, the more time becomes absorbed in purely internal questions of administration, personnel, maintenance, etc. Apart from the danger this has in diverting the bureau's staff, especially senior staff, from its primary task there is also a danger that an unduly large proportion of costs (even though represented only indirectly in time consumed) will not be directly concerned with and reflected in the promotion of literature provision.

In comparing the cost of work printed by the bureau itself with that done outside by commercial firms, it may appear that the bureau's work is cheaper, in that there is no profit element. This may well be illusory. The cost of work done outside will certainly include a profit element, but it will also include such things as the costs of technical services rendered, machinery depreciation, financing of work on hand, administration costs, in fact all those things which go into making up the overheads of a business apart from the cost of the labour and materials used in a particular job. These overheads do not cease to exist when a bureau makes arrangements to print its own publications; what tends to happen in public as opposed to commercial accounting systems is that the costs tend to be split up and absorbed among a number of different budget sub-heads. This can create misleading conclusions about comparative costs.

For the same reason a government printing plant should not be

indefinitely expanded *simply and solely* to take care of a literature bureau's printing needs, without a cautious examination of the costing factor in relation to the possibility of using commercial resources. The role of the bureau is primarily to provide specialist knowledge and experience of a kind that is essential but does not exist elsewhere in the territory, rather than to duplicate technical services which may already exist or are capable of being developed.

The question whether to use the direct print system or the guarantee system must be determined in respect of each manuscript separately in relation to a number of factors:

1. The nature of the material. Simple ephemeral material of small compass is seldom suitable for publishing and the direct print system should therefore be used.
2. The ratio of free distribution to sales. The higher the proportion of an edition intended for free distribution in relation to the proportion intended for sales, the less value there lies in publishing as opposed to printing, and vice versa.
3. The possibility of markets outside the bureau's own area. The greater the chances of a book having considerable sales outside the bureau's own area the more value there is in having it published rather than printed, provided the publisher selected is in fact able to develop sales in other areas.
4. The permanency of the material. Where material is likely to be required for a long period substantially unchanged (say more than three years) the more value there is in having it published. Where the material is experimental or likely to become obsolete fairly soon, it is often better to print.
5. The competence and the resources of commercial printers and publishers available in the territory. There is little use in having a book published and consequently paying the publisher's profit margin unless he is able and willing to provide the sort of services required under the guarantee system as outlined above (pages 124-8), and is fully willing to co-operate in building up an effective distribution system; nor is there any point in making use of commercial printers if their charges are unreasonable.

Modification in the Guarantee Given

The essence of the situation in working through publishers under the guarantee system is a sharing of costs and responsibilities and also of benefits. The publishers secure a profit, but in return provide the bureau with a number of specialized technical services, and the support of their all-important distribution facilities; they also provide a large part of the immediate financial outlay

required for producing the material. The bureau provides the publishers with carefully prepared and orientated manuscripts, and by its guarantee minimizes the financial risk to publishers in what is inevitably a pioneer and uncertain market. However, as indicated in the previous paragraph, and in the Introduction, it is essential that the services rendered by the publishers should do what they are intended to do; and it is a measure of the success of such co-operation between bureau and publishers that there should, over the years, be a progressive decrease in the necessity for the guarantee given by the bureau. In the early stages it may be necessary for the bureau to guarantee complete editions. Later it becomes possible in respect of some publications to guarantee only part of the edition, e.g., out of an edition of say 7,000 copies, perhaps only 3,000 copies will be guaranteed. At first this may be the *last* 3,000 copies, i.e., the publisher takes the lesser part of the risk by accepting responsibility for the first 4,000 copies, and the bureau takes the greater risk in respect of the last 3,000. But as progress is made and markets become increasingly well-established and ascertainable, and as reading habits develop, the position is gradually reversed and we reach the stage where the bureau need only guarantee the *first* portion of an edition. Finally the stage begins to develop where an increasing proportion of the manuscripts prepared under the bureau's auspices can be placed with publishers with the necessary relevant information, and the publishers produce them without guarantee at all. In other words the stage to aim at is the situation where the bureau becomes a sort of combination of an expert publisher's reader and literary agent.

COSTING AND BUDGETING STAGE

In commercial publishing the major part of the costs of a publishing house must be reflected in the price of the books it sells. The money received from the sales of books must cover the salaries of the staff employed, labour and materials in printing and producing books, royalties and other fees, investment of capital, and cost of maintenance of buildings, advertising, complimentary copies, trade discounts, losses on unsuccessful publications, and so on.

The bookseller also must cover his costs by way of salaries, overheads, profits, etc., out of the sales he makes, and these costs must be met from the difference between what he sells the book to the public for and the price he pays the publisher for it.

These hard facts do not cease to exist simply because the

literature bureau is a government organization; the various costs mentioned may perhaps not be brought to account in such a way as to be reflected in the price which the public pays for the books produced by the bureau, but they are there nevertheless and they have to be met in some manner. It is important that a literature bureau should know what these costs are, no matter how they happen to be accounted for. Although in the pioneer conditions in which the bureau works it is almost certain that revenue from book sales will not balance expenditure for several years, it is nevertheless important that the costing procedures and accounting systems adopted should be arranged so that progress in various aspects of the work can be accurately assessed.

The costing procedures which a bureau adopts usually have certain characteristic features: (a) they are designed to give a true reflection of the over-all funds which the government is spending on literature provision in the territory (a situation which is difficult or impossible when the work is spread haphazard through numerous different departments on a part-time or *ad hoc* basis); (b) they are designed to give a clear picture of the progress being made in various separate aspects of the work; (c) they are designed so that they can be used as a definite stimulus towards achieving the literature bureau's objectives, and are not a merely neutral accounting system.

While different territories will have their own standard budget procedures the following analysis indicates the kind of provisions required:

Capital expenditure. This provides for: the cost of the erection of new buildings where necessary; the purchase of major equipment such as printing plant, typewriters, and mimeograph machines; cars or vans for travel on duty, delivery of stock, etc.

Normal recurrent expenditure. (a) Personal emoluments and allowances, e.g., salaries, travel on duty costs, etc. (b) Non-personal charges: maintenance of buildings, cleaning, light, telephone, etc.; purchase of stationery, minor office equipment, etc.; purchase of books, periodicals and other materials for the bureau's own reference library and distribution to literature committees and other organizations; funds for experimental and inquiry work in printing and presentation of materials, etc. (to be charged to the publications fund where definite publication for sale results); funds for the organization, running costs, and prizes in connexion with literary competitions; grants-in-aid to literature committees.

A publications fund. This is a special separate fund which constitutes a form of working capital to cover the costs of the actual

production of literature. All costs directly incurred in the production of each piece of reading material are debited to it; and all revenue in respect of each publication is credited to it.

A distribution fund. Although the work of developing the distribution system is one of the most important aspects of the literature bureau's work, the finances of it are best treated separately—the cost of distribution is more or less a self-contained aspect of the literature bureau's work which it is desirable to be able to assess separately.

The publications fund. In the preparation and production of any piece of reading material a number of debits and credits are incurred which are clearly assignable to the particular piece of literature in question and distinct from the more general administrative costs of running the bureau's work, as defined above. At the editorial stage there may be fees to be paid to authors, translators or adaptors, and to illustrators; when the direct print system is used, there will be printers' bills to be paid. In the distribution stage revenue will accrue from sales, but costs may also be incurred in advertising, distributing inspection copies, loss and damage to copies and losses on copies unsold. A separate account is opened in the publications fund for each individual publication, to which all such debits and credits for that publication are entered, since the bureau should be able to know at any time how each book is doing and how the publications as a whole are doing. The bureau should also have an easy and flexible method of subsidizing books where necessary. The publications fund, and the methods of using it, constitute a particularly flexible and potent weapon for achieving these ends.

Since the time elapsing, from the first beginnings of the preparation of a piece of material to the time when it has been produced and distributed, and the edition is finally exhausted, is usually several years, the publications fund should be operated on the revolving fund principle. On establishment of the bureau the government approves a maximum sum of money for this revolving fund (e.g., it was £5,000 in the case of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau and £25,000 in the case of the East African Literature Bureau). The bureau does not draw on all this money at once; it draws, for example, £1,000 to initiate its publications programme and from this it pays the costs arising therefrom; later on it credits to the fund revenues from sales. Expenditure will obviously be very much heavier than revenue in the early stages and the bureau draws additional sums into the fund, as required, to keep it in balance until the maximum sum

referred to above has been reached or until revenue catches up with expenditure. If that sum should not prove sufficient, it is up to the bureau to present the facts to the government which, if satisfied with the work the bureau is doing and the progress it is making, can increase the sum; alternatively, the bureau must reduce the scale of its operations for the time being until revenue from sales puts the fund in balance again. Thus the revolving fund is not only an essential part of the bureau's own organization, it is a useful means by which the central government can control or expand the work, according to its resources and policies.

Costing Procedures

We must now examine the way in which the bureau costs its publications. We shall assume that the bureau aims to dispose of the whole of the edition of each publication it produces at a price which will leave it with neither profit nor loss. In this case the price the bureau expects to be paid for its books by other government departments, the book depot if there is one, and other retailers, must approximate to the actual cost price. If the bureau wishes to make a profit itself, it must raise the retail price of the book by appropriately varying the costing procedure. If part of the edition remains unsold its cost value remains as a debit against the book. It is not sufficient for the bureau simply to work out the cost price of its productions and then to let everybody have them at this price to sell at any price they wish.

There is no space here to go into the whole question of net book agreements, but most people will agree that a single book should not be available at all sorts of different prices in different places—some standard price must be aimed at. Consequently the objects of the bureau's costing methods are: (a) to establish a standard territorial retail price; (b) to ensure that this price allows book retailers to retain a sufficient margin of discount to encourage and enable them to assist in the work of distribution, and to include another margin for the wholesaler's profit where this is deemed necessary. (Sometimes the wholesaler's margin can be deducted from the retailer's margin, but care must be used here not to discourage retailers by cutting their margin too fine.)

Costing procedure on the above basis will therefore be as follows:

1. A new account is opened in the publications fund for each individual piece of reading material.
2. All costs in the editorial stage will be paid out of the publications fund, and debited to this account.
3. When the production stage is reached, the material may be

placed with the printer (direct print system) or it may be placed with a publisher for production under the guarantee system. In the former case there will be printer's charges to pay and these will be debited to the account for the book concerned; but costs paid out of the publications fund during the preparation of basic materials on behalf of other government departments may now be refunded to the bureau by those departments and credited to the book's account. If the book is placed with a publisher there will be no printer's bills, and the publisher may be asked to refund some of the costs incurred in the editorial stage; any such refunds will be credited to the account of the book. At the bureau's discretion it may be decided *not* to recover some of these costs in order to keep down the final retail price (see section on subsidies, page 13).

4. On completion of printing or publication the bureau's next step will be to decide on the retail price (see below).
5. After determination of a selling price the book will be released into the distribution system. At this stage revenues will begin to accrue from sales (distributors obtaining their supplies from the bureau at trade price); further costs (some indirect) in the form of exploitation costs (see below) will be incurred and must be debited to the book's account. Other factors, e.g., loss of and damage to copies, failure of copies to sell, etc., must also be brought to account (see the section on the distribution system for further details).
6. At a suitable time, when the edition is sold out or when it is decided it is obsolete or no longer marketable, the account in the publications fund for the particular book is ruled off and the final net profit or loss ascertained.

Establishing a Territorial Price

Direct print books. The establishment of the territorial selling price is not only an operation in itself; its description provides a good insight into important aspects of literature provision; it will therefore be dealt with here in some detail. On examining the appropriate book account in the publications fund the bureau will be able to ascertain all costs entailed in the production of the book. To these costs it must now add suitable factors to allow for exploitation costs, advertising, retailers' and wholesalers' discounts, and overhead expenses.

Exploitation costs: Costs will have to be allowed if it is intended to advertise the book, produce brochures, etc.; an allowance must also be made for the fact that some copies will be given away

free as specimen copies, other copies may be received imperfect from the printers, and more copies inevitably get damaged in the warehouse and in transit. None of these copies shows any financial return and should therefore be allowed for in costing. A reasonable amount to allow for this factor (approximating to the practice of established publishers) is 4 per cent of the final retail price fixed.

Retailer's margin. The margin allowed to retailers varies between 20 and 60 per cent of the retail price; $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent and 25 per cent are usual figures and will serve as examples in the calculations given below.

Wholesaler's margin: This may fall at somewhere between 5 and 10 per cent of the retail price, usually the lower figure.

Overheads: In an ordinary commercial publishing business the overheads represent those general costs of maintaining the business which do not enter into the direct cost of producing a particular book, e.g., salaries, rent, light, telephones and office maintenance. Literature bureaux usually do not reflect such costs in the price of their books; they are regarded as a government subsidy towards fostering a new literature, and in the circumstances may be unduly high, in the early stages, in relation to output. They are therefore left as a general charge against the bureau's administrative votes. Nevertheless the bureau should not ignore the existence of such costs and may eventually wish to include them in the cost of its books in the same way as a commercial publisher does, since the long-term objective of the bureau is to get literature provision on to a normal self-supporting basis. The precise figure allowed for this factor by publishing houses varies considerably, and is difficult to isolate, but it is usually somewhere between 20 and 40 per cent on the production cost of the book; in the examples below we have used the figure of 25 per cent on cost.

The retail price for a book may therefore now be established.

The following three examples indicate the general principles; variations in the different percentages can be made to suit local policies and conditions. In this way guesswork will be avoided, and losses and subsidies will be planned rather than fortuitous.

Example 1. Allowing 25 per cent on production costs for overheads, 5 per cent for the wholesaler's margin, and $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent for the retailer's margin:

Preparation costs = a .

Printing costs = b .

Overheads ¹ at 25 per cent of $a + b = c$.

1. Overheads may be omitted if it is not policy to include them.

Amount bureau expects to receive per copy sold $(a + b + c) = x$.

Let retail price be y . Then bureau will receive $\frac{2}{3}y$ (the retailer retains the remaining one-third) less $\frac{1}{20}y$ (wholesaler's margin), less $\frac{1}{25}y$ (exploitation costs).

Thus $\frac{2}{3}y - \frac{1}{20}y - \frac{1}{25}y$ must be not less than x
i.e., retail price y must be not less than $1.734x$ (say) $1.75x$.

Example 2. Allowing 25 per cent production costs for overheads, 5 per cent for wholesaler's margin, and 25 per cent for retailer's margin:

Preparation costs = a .

Printing costs = b .

Overheads at 25 per cent of $a + b = c$.

Amount bureau expects to receive per copy = x .

Let retail price be y . Then bureau will receive $\frac{3}{4}y$ ($\frac{1}{4}$ remains with retailer), less $\frac{1}{20}y$ (wholesaler), less $\frac{1}{25}y$ (exploitation).

Thus $\frac{3}{4}y - \frac{1}{20}y - \frac{1}{25}y$ must be not less than x
i.e., retail price y must be not less than $1.515x$.

Example 3. If it is desired to pay a royalty to the author instead of a fee, it may be noted that royalties are usually calculated at a percentage of the retail price. Let us take the quite usual case of a 10 per cent royalty; then the calculation will be as follows:

Amounts bureau expects to receive per copy, calculated as previously = x .

Let retail price be y . Then bureau will receive (for a book with a $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent retailer's margin) $\frac{2}{3}y - \frac{1}{20}y - \frac{1}{25}y - \frac{1}{10}y$ (author's royalty).

Thus retail price y must be not less than $2.098x$.

Guarantee books. Where the bureau produces books through a publisher the retail price within the territory will have been agreed between the bureau and the publisher in the course of the negotiations already described. It should be noted that the price which the bureau pays to the publisher for copies it wants for resale through its own distribution system will not be the retail price, it will be the trade price, i.e., the published price less the retailer's margin and also less the wholesaler's margin if there is one. The price the bureau pays to the publisher for any unsold copies which it buys up at the end of the guarantee period will be this same trade price less any author's royalty which may have been allowed for. (The reason the author's royalty is deducted at this stage is that the books have not in fact been sold.)

The retail price of books produced through publishers may be

somewhat higher than those produced under the direct print system, in that the publisher includes a margin in the price to cover his net profit but this may be offset by other savings in the administration and organization of the bureau which the guarantee system makes possible, as indicated above.

It may be of interest to note in passing that if a publisher calculates for himself a net profit of 10 per cent of the retail price of the book, then the retail price y indicated in Example 3 will be approximately $2.75 x$, while the retail price y for the same example, were the bookseller's margin reduced to 25 per cent, would be $2.17 x$.

Subsidies

Sometimes it may be desirable to sell a book at less than cost price, for example books on subjects such as soil erosion and health problems may be so important that it is essential that the population should be able to obtain them without difficulty. The experience of most people is that the payment by readers of even a nominal sum for reading materials is better than a free gift; the payment enables a check to be kept on how and where copies are going, and is in harmony with the long-term aims of the bureau.

As regards basic materials prepared on behalf of government departments, the amount of the subsidy required should be calculated in consultation with the department concerned and paid by that department to the bureau. In the case of the bureau's own materials there will be no cash payment; the subsidy will be affected by recognizing that the retail price chosen gives a return to the bureau of less than the cost price, and must therefore be represented by a book entry in the appropriate account in the publications fund. As indicated previously, it is best for many reasons not to effect subsidies by cutting distribution margins, and this is true even if distribution is being carried out chiefly by the bureau's own (government) agencies. The subsidy may therefore be arranged and calculated in two ways as regards direct print materials.

First, a whole or a part of the charges a or b or c in the costing examples given above may be omitted before arriving at the figure x . Any amounts so omitted should be refunded by the appropriate department concerned, or in the case of the bureau's own materials are a general charge against the publications fund. The result of omitting these charges in arriving at the figure x is that the final retail price y , being a function of x , is reduced, but the percentage margin for retailers (but not their actual amounts) will remain the same.

Second, it may be occasionally desired to calculate the subsidy required to achieve a particular retail price rather than merely to omit some costs and use whatever lower price results, as was done in the previous example. This can be done as in the following calculation using Example 1 above as a basis:

Amount per copy which the bureau would receive on a normal cost price basis = x .

Desired (subsidized) retail price per copy = z .

Amount per copy the bureau will receive at the retail price $z = \frac{2}{3}z - \frac{1}{20}z - \frac{1}{25}z$, i.e., $\frac{173}{300}z$, or $0.58z$.

Therefore the amount of subsidy required is: $x - 0.58z$ times the number of copies in the edition.

For example, suppose the production cost factor (x) of the particular book in Example 1 is 20 units per copy; then the full retail price (y) to return production cost to bureau is 1.75×20 , i.e., 35 units. Suppose however that it is desired to sell the book at a subsidized retail price (z) of 30 units, then the subsidy required is not 5 units per copy; it is:

$x - 0.58z$ units per copy

i.e., $20 - 0.58 \times 30$ units per copy

i.e., $20 - 17.4$ units per copy

i.e., 2.6 units per copy.

Calculations similar to this can be made, with appropriate variations, whatever particular margins for retailers, wholesalers, and overheads are being allowed for.

With regard to 'guarantee' materials produced through a publisher, the subsidy can either be arranged by making a cash payment to the publisher to reduce the x factor; or if it is desired to avoid paying the publisher a lump sum in cash a subsidy can be arranged by the bureau taking the book into its own distribution system at cost price and selling at an artificially low price. This latter method is only suitable in the case of certain materials, e.g., some school text books, which are unlikely to have any sales outside the territory. The financial calculations in respect of these two methods of subsidizing are rather complicated, but it may be worth while summing up here their advantages and disadvantages.

The first method, i.e., of paying a lump sum to the publisher, has the advantage that it produces a somewhat greater reduction in the retail price in relation to the subsidy given; and it is simple and easy to operate. It has the disadvantage that it involves the bureau in paying out cash sums of money which may be inconvenient when there is a large production programme; and it is a rather complicated matter calculating what proportion of the

subsidy should be recovered from the publisher if the edition of the book fails to sell completely.

The second method, i.e., of subsidizing, has the advantage that no cash payments are required and no subsidy is paid at all in respect of the unsold portion of the edition; but it has the disadvantage that it does not produce so great a reduction in the retail price of the book as the cash payment under the first system does.

DISTRIBUTION STAGE

Following the production and costing of materials as described in the previous sections, the question of their distribution arises. As has already been said, the long-term aim is to enable and to encourage people to pay for an increasing proportion of their own materials, this being the only way to develop a real possibility of a wide variety of materials and reasonable personal choice. Thus it will be a function of the literature bureau to develop a system which will meet both the needs of the government and of the public, maintaining an effective balance between the necessity for government distribution of materials in some cases, and facilitating an increasing proportion of sales to the public in others.

In developing distribution facilities the following needs must therefore be met. Supplies have to be available to government departments, often for free distribution. Further supplies may be required by individual institutions and organizations, e.g., schools, co-operative societies, voluntary associations, etc., to meet the needs of their own members and local public as may be appropriate, either by free distribution or by re-sale. Publications should be easily available, on payment, to members of the public who do not 'qualify' for free issue; and some of the materials, especially that in the 'supplementary' category, will not be available for free issue at all, so that possibilities for their sale must be organized. This involves the development of a network of bookselling facilities.

In meeting these needs, considerations to be borne in mind are:

1. It is unsatisfactory and uneconomic for every department of government to have to duplicate all these distribution activities by dealing with their own books. They should not be constantly sending out small parcels, replying to inquiries, receiving small or large sums of money, accounting for a stocktaking of the books in their possession and providing haphazard storage accommodation for them.

2. It has been found by experience that the financial mechanisms involved if books are to be made available for sale, are not appropriately met by the normal government annual systems of finance.
3. It is often unsatisfactory to those who need the books, or who are assisting in their distribution, especially those who are inexperienced, to have to write to several different addresses for their requirements, (e.g., to several different government departments). It is much better that they should be able to obtain them all from one place.
4. In the matter of obtaining supplies of suitable books published outside the territory, it is not satisfactory merely to obtain books from overseas retail bookshops, or even through the system of government tendering and bulk-buying; considerable delays are involved and often only relatively small discounts are obtained.
5. In view of the pioneer conditions in which these needs have to be met, and the many special problems involved, ordinary private commercial enterprise is often not equipped to provide the necessary specialized service, nor are the inducements by way of turnover and profits sufficient to encourage it to engage very actively in the work without assistance. Alternative methods may therefore have to be found, at any rate in the early years.

It is obviously useless to produce books unless adequate means exist for getting them into the hands of readers; in this sense the process of distributing reading material does not differ essentially from that of distributing blankets, bars of soap, packets of sugar or any other commodity. The 'factory' (in this case the printing press) produces large quantities; these materials must then be warehoused, broken down into smaller lots, and despatched to retail points (the 'wholesale' process). Retail points then sell to the individual consumer. All this costs money; administrative and other expenses are incurred at the wholesale stage, transport costs occur between this and the retail stage, and the retailer himself must live. No matter what agencies are used, the distribution of books costs money; if government servants do the work it may be that some of the costs are borne on other government votes, and are not included in the retail price of the book; but they are there all the same. If literature is eventually to be a living, self-supporting and self-renewing thing, the price calculated for each piece should carry within it the costs of its distribution, as is the case in countries with highly developed and stabilized literature provision systems.

In these countries a 'published price' is fixed for each book, which is the price at which the retailer sells it to the public; this

price is higher than the price at which the retailer buys it from the wholesaler or publisher, and the difference between these prices represents a large part of the cost of distribution, as indicated in the section on costing. The margin left to the retailer varies in different countries, and with different kinds of books, between about 20 and 60 per cent of the published price; this is the retailer's gross profit, not his net profit. Out of it he must usually pay the cost of carriage on the books to him; and of course he will have to pay the costs of maintaining his shop and any wages he pays; also the cost of copies of books which he buys but fails to sell. It is a good bookseller who makes as much as 10 per cent net profit on selling new books, and many make less. Many booksellers combine the sale of books with other things, e.g., school materials, stationery, leather and fancy goods, periodicals and newspapers. Bookselling is not intrinsically a highly profitable business, and in areas where people have not much money to spare they often have other needs which they must satisfy before buying books.

The conclusions to be drawn from the situation described in the previous paragraphs are these:

If we are really serious in our intentions to provide literature in quantities adequate to fix and develop literacy, and prevent a widespread relapse into illiteracy, the question of distribution must be energetically tackled from the start, and not as an afterthought.

Both official and non-official effort will be required; the latter may include bookshops, country storekeepers, itinerant booksellers, co-operative societies, welfare organizations, clubs and committees—in fact anyone in a position to give help.

Since bookselling is neither excessively profitable nor too easy, the profit margin to the retailer willing to help should be reasonably generous rather than the reverse, and the retail price of the book should reflect such distribution costs.

If it is necessary for the bureau to sell a book at a loss (i.e., to subsidize it) the subsidy should be inserted at the production or administrative stage rather than at the distribution stage, i.e., the retail price should not be lowered by cutting the retailer's profit margin.

The bureau should include within its staffing, organization, methods and budget, provision for advising and helping in other ways those who are willing to assist with distribution, providing there are suitable safeguards.

Central Book Depot

A contribution to the solution of these problems has sometimes been found in the development of a central book depot where the reading materials are stocked. Government departments can purchase from the depot the supplies they need, and others who require supplies either for their own needs or for re-sale, are able to obtain them from a depot at a discount sufficient to make re-sale possible. The procedure is that a book depot takes into its warehouse the reading materials from various sources at the wholesale price; it then makes these supplies available in smaller lots to the sort of retail agencies listed above, at the trade price, for further distribution and sale. Profits made by a book depot go towards its working expenses; a depot's methods and accounts should be organized on normal commercial lines and it should keep its accounts and budget as an entirely separate part of the general literature bureau budget. While a depot will aim at balancing its accounts, it may very likely, in its early years, sustain losses. Such losses sustained by a book depot represent the cost of building up the distribution system; but the method enables losses to be known, planned, and controlled, instead of being dispersed, hidden, and uncontrolled.

In establishing a book depot some territories have been able to build on existing organizations which have long traditions in the matter of supplying books to local people. Here, the government, through its literature bureau, has been able to arrange with such organizations that they should act on the government's behalf in this matter, and has assisted them to do so by providing capital loans for buildings where necessary, by supporting their work through channelling its own requirements for literature supplies through them, and in certain cases by making financial grants towards appropriate approved expenditures of the type mentioned on pages 147-9. This is the case for example in the Northern Rhodesia section of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau. In other territories where there has been no suitable foundation on which to build, the literature bureau has established its own central book depot to meet the needs of the situation for an initial period of years. This agency has been provided by the government with the necessary working capital and buildings, and has been allowed to work on normal commercial lines, and has been required to produce annual trading returns for submission to the government auditor. This system operates in the Nyasaland branch of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau.

Thus the necessity for the bureau to establish its own central book depot and the size and scope of its operations, will be very largely in inverse proportion to the scale and efficiency of commercial organizations already existing in the territory. As long as there is someone in the territory who is able and willing to undertake the task of warehousing and wholesaling the range of reading materials considered necessary, and the publications produced by the bureau, it is not absolutely essential for the bureau to establish its own depot; but it must be remembered that an important aspect of the functions of a central book depot is that it is in a sense the business arm of a literature bureau; it does not exist simply as a wholesaler and retailer of books, it is there to take an active and positive part in the building up of the distribution system in a territory and to develop and encourage by every means available to it subsidiary means of distribution. The various aspects of distribution work described in this section will have to be performed in one way or another; when a literature bureau has its own book depot it is useful that this work should be centred in the depot; in other cases the work will have to be directed from within the bureau itself through its business wing.

Types of Distributing Agencies

It is not to be expected in the conditions obtaining in areas where literature bureaux operate that there will be an extensive chain of points which can exist simply and solely on selling books. There may be such book shops in large towns, but away from towns the turnover in books is unlikely to make such specialized shops possible and it will therefore be necessary that bookselling be combined with other activities. The following list indicates some of the agencies which have been found useful by various literature bureaux in book distribution works:

- Full-time book shops; book kiosks in centres of population concentration and movement, e.g., large mines, companies, railway centres, plantations, etc., mobile book vans; general retail stores.
- Headquarters offices of branch literature committees; educational institutions; religious bodies; government administration posts; institutions such as hospitals.
- Co-operative societies; welfare agencies; offices of local councils; literacy agencies, etc.
- Semi-private organizations, men's and women's committees and clubs, readers' groups, etc.

Methods of Sales Promotion

Means which have been used to foster literature distribution work through such channels are:

The supply of materials at discount prices sufficient to enable them to be resold at a reasonable profit.

In the early stages the supply of materials on 'sale or return' terms.

This is a useful method of encouraging new booksellers but must be carefully controlled. Supplies should be kept fairly small and the method should be discontinued as soon as the selling point appears to be doing reasonably well, or alternatively if the selling point does not appear to be making any progress. Failure to return unsold copies or their constant return in damaged and soiled condition must also be watched carefully; a sympathetic attitude may often have to be taken to this point in the early stages, and losses arising therefrom simply represent the costs of establishing a distribution system; nevertheless care should be taken that such losses do not get out of hand and are not exploited.

The supply of advice about what materials are available and their costs, and help in selecting and purchasing stocks. Selling agents, especially small and inexperienced ones, must be guarded against over-stocking; a good range of titles is often more important than stocking very large numbers of copies of just a few titles. Advice to booksellers about lines, e.g., school textbooks, likely to be in constant demand, will be valuable; but it is also important for the literature bureau to try and guard booksellers against being left with large quantities of dead stock on their hands through sudden changes in the books prescribed for schools and other educational institutions.

The supply on loan of suitable equipment and furniture for the proper storage and display of book stocks, e.g., properly designed book cupboards, show cases, metal boxes, etc.

Visits by the bureau staff with advice and help. Organization of local book exhibitions. Publication by the bureau of names and addresses of book stockists.

The bureau encourages and persuades schools and other educational institutions, libraries, etc., to obtain their supplies through local stockists as far as possible where the stockist is able and willing to give adequate service.

The bureau assists inexperienced booksellers in obtaining books from outside publishers until they are able to stand on their own feet.

The operations of the book depot must be examined from two

points of view: (a) when the bureau establishes its own depot; (b) when the bureau builds on some existing non-government agency.

The materials to be distributed will be: those published by the bureau under the direct print system (i.e., under its own imprint); those published by the bureau in co-operation with commercial publishers under a guarantee; those reading materials produced by publishers and other organizations independently and without bureau assistance, but considered useful in the territory.

The Bureau's own Depot

Materials published by the bureau itself. On completion of production these will be costed by the bureau according to the methods indicated earlier, and wholesale, trade, and retail prices will be established. One of the following courses may then be followed—there is not much to choose between them—it is a matter of suiting the administrative, warehousing, and accounting convenience of the particular bureau concerned:

1. The book depot may take over and warehouse the entire stock of a particular publication and proceed to market it. It will remit to the bureau at agreed intervals (e.g., quarterly) receipts from copies actually sold. The price remitted to the bureau will be the wholesale price; the price which the depot receives from retailers and from government departments will be the trade price, or the published price less whatever discount has been agreed between the book depot and a particular customer.
2. The bureau may provide its own warehousing facilities; in this case the depot will obtain from the bureau only the number of copies it thinks reasonable for initial stocking, and would normally be expected to pay the bureau for these at wholesale rates on receipt, rather than on sale. Further stocks will be obtained from the bureau from time to time as required.

Materials published by the bureau through publishers under guarantee. The whole object of working through publishers is to secure as much as possible of their assistance in the normal business of publishing, distributing, and selling books, in return for the bureau's guarantee which removes a large part of the financial risk involved in doing this in an uncertain and developing market. Thus the publishers will be expected to engage actively the promotion and development of the distribution system and to supply retailers direct at trade price; the book depot could not be expected to take over the warehousing and marketing of stocks of books produced in this way. Nevertheless, the book depot will need to maintain some

stocks of such books, for supplies will be required for the needs of government departments when they have sponsored a particular book, and there will be a number of new, small, and inexperienced retailers who will find it easier in the initial stages to deal with the book depot as a wholesaler than to deal direct with publishers. Such retailers will need a good deal of assistance of the kind described under 'Methods of sales promotion', (page 145). The depot will therefore need to maintain sufficient stocks of guaranteed publications for these purposes and will obtain these stocks from publishers at the wholesale price. Publications so obtained will be paid for by the depot on receipt rather than on sale, but the depot may require cash from its customers or allow credit to them according to its judgement of the circumstances.

Materials other than those produced by the bureau or under its guarantee. The book depot will obtain these materials from the publishers or other producers at wholesale rates or the best rates available, and the depot will cost them as indicated in a previous section, using their landed cost as x ; it will supply them to retailers in the same way as for other publications. It will supply these services as long as may be necessary, but with the long-term objective of encouraging retailers to deal direct with publishers as soon as they have sufficient experience. The depot will have to exercise discretion as regards the titles and quantities it stocks to avoid the danger of overstocking and the accumulation of excessive dead stock. While the manager of the depot must be allowed a reasonable discretion, he will be wise to seek regular advice from government departments, educational institutions, literature committees, libraries and retailers, and to maintain the closest liaison with the head of the literature bureau to whom he will be responsible. Nevertheless, since the *raison d'être* of the book depot is the absence of other facilities, the depot may be expected to stock the widest range possible consistent with the circumstances and needs of the situation rather than to confine itself simply and solely to stocking sure sellers. Its role is a developmental one, not merely the passive one of a supply agency.

Building on Existing Non-Government Agencies

Where a commercial bookselling organization already exists, with a distribution system of its own, or at any rate a nucleus of one of potential value, there are obvious advantages in trying to build on it rather than duplicating it. However, the extent to which the bureau can devolve its distribution work on to such an organization

depends on how far and on what terms the organization is willing to take on the functions indicated, to stock a wide range of materials, and to give positive aid and encouragement to smaller distributors. If it is not able to do so, then it must simply be regarded as one among other retailers and the bureau itself must accept the responsibility for the development work. Naturally, in the uncertain trade conditions inherent in literature promotion in underdeveloped areas, commercial concerns will require some prospects of a reasonable return. In Northern Rhodesia, where the Publications Bureau has utilized the services of the United Society for Christian Literature—a society with long book-selling traditions and experience—the nature of the co-operation between the bureau and the society is as follows:

1. The bureau gives the society the sole wholesale agency within the territory for all its publications whether direct print or guaranteed.
2. In return the society agrees to warehouse the entire stock of bureau direct print publications and to stock, display, and retail all the bureau publications no matter how produced; and to stock, display and retail a very wide range of independently produced publications considered useful in the territory. It agrees actively to encourage and assist all agencies throughout the territory which are willing to participate in the distribution and sale of reading material.
3. The society helps such retailing agencies by performing (as agents of the bureau, as well as in its own interests) most of the functions already outlined in the section on methods of sales promotion. The society does not receive a special wholesaler's discount, but the agreement is that it shall pass on to subsidiary retailers not less than half the discount it receives from the bureau. In the majority of cases the discount received by the society on bureau publications is $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of which $16\frac{2}{3}$ per cent is passed on to subsidiary retailers.
4. In the course of this work the society's staff visits and assists up-country retailers and may receive grants from the bureau to cover a proportion of its travel expenses so incurred.
5. As regards direct print publications, the society pays the bureau quarterly on a basis of copies actually sold. As regards guaranteed publications, the society obtains its stocks direct from publishers; the publishers invoice the bureau which pays their accounts quarterly on receipt, and the society refunds to the bureau quarterly the value at trade price of copies sold. The purchase and sale of other publications is the society's own responsibility.

6. The society's work is helped by the government agreeing to obtain the books required for its own schools through the society, and a voluntary agreement also exists that other educational organizations in receipt of government grants-in-aid will obtain their materials from the society.
7. The society also stocks and supplies school materials, and most educational institutions find it convenient, and are encouraged, to obtain their supplies from them.
8. The government agreed to make certain interest-free loans available, if necessary, to the society for the purpose of expanding its accommodation to an extent necessary to carry out this work, but the society did not need to take up these loans.

An interesting alternative occurs in Nyasaland, where there was no established foundation on which to build and where the bureau accordingly established its own book depot known as the 'A.B.C.' or African Book Centre. This organization is directed by a business manager, who is a member of the bureau's staff, and performs the functions already described for a central book depot. The Government of Nyasaland provided the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland General Publications Bureau with an interest-free loan of £5,000 with which to establish this work and has continued to assist and support it. The A.B.C. also stocks school materials and an interesting example of governmental co-operation is the fact that the manager of the A.B.C., although a member of the literature bureau staff, has been designated Education Supplies Officer by the Nyasaland Government Education Department, and government school supplies are obtained through him, thus giving the depot a valuable support, and securing an arrangement which is of great mutual benefit.

Mobile Book Shops

There is no doubt that in some circumstances the mobile bookshop can be of great use. Various sizes and designs of book vans ranging from small ones with very little special equipment up to heavy specially designed lorries have been used.

Normally the larger and more stabilized centres of population are the best served with public transport, and are the most promising places for the establishment of static book retail points; thus the major book distribution problems are concerned with smaller centres and more scattered populations, and places less well served with public transport. These are just the places where the roads are usually poorest, and it is important in these

circumstances to be sure that the size and design of the van selected and the road systems in the areas to be served are compatible.

The cost of purchasing, maintaining and operating a book van is considerable, and the financial returns from its operations in the areas mentioned above may well be small in relation to this expense; this will be especially the case where very long distances and sparse and scattered populations coincide. On the other hand, in rural districts or suburban areas with fairly dense populations and reasonable road systems, the mobile book van may be a better proposition than the static book centre.

Book vans may be used for actual bookselling in places where static book centres are not yet developed or for delivering stocks to various retailers or both. Moreover, the bureau will have to have some means of travelling about the territory so that it can do its work properly. The more these operations can be combined (and this will affect the design of van selected) the better.

Sometimes it will be more economical to combine the work of the mobile book van with the mobile activities of other government departments, e.g., mobile ciné-vans and recording vans, community development team transport, etc. In such cases it is possible for the bureau to fit out suitably designed book-boxes for holding the books and for displaying them at stopping points, and to make arrangements with the department concerned for their use and deployment.

Thus the mobile bookshop, although of considerable potential value, requires before use a careful survey of exactly what is expected of it, of the conditions and areas in which it will operate, and of what practicable alternatives are possible.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION; THE STAFF AND THEIR FUNCTIONS

No two literature bureaux will be exactly alike; their size and organization will depend on a great many things such as the geographical area to be covered, size and density of population, language and cultural homogeneity or otherwise, stage of economic development of the territory, percentage of literacy, funds available, priority given to the work by the government, and so on. All these factors will influence the literature bureau's shape and growth. However Diagrams 1 and 3 and the explanations below provide a picture of a comprehensive bureau which is capable of expansion or contraction according to needs; expansion can be effected by the opening of smaller branch offices, or by increasing the staffing in the various divisions of the main bureau.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF A BUREAU

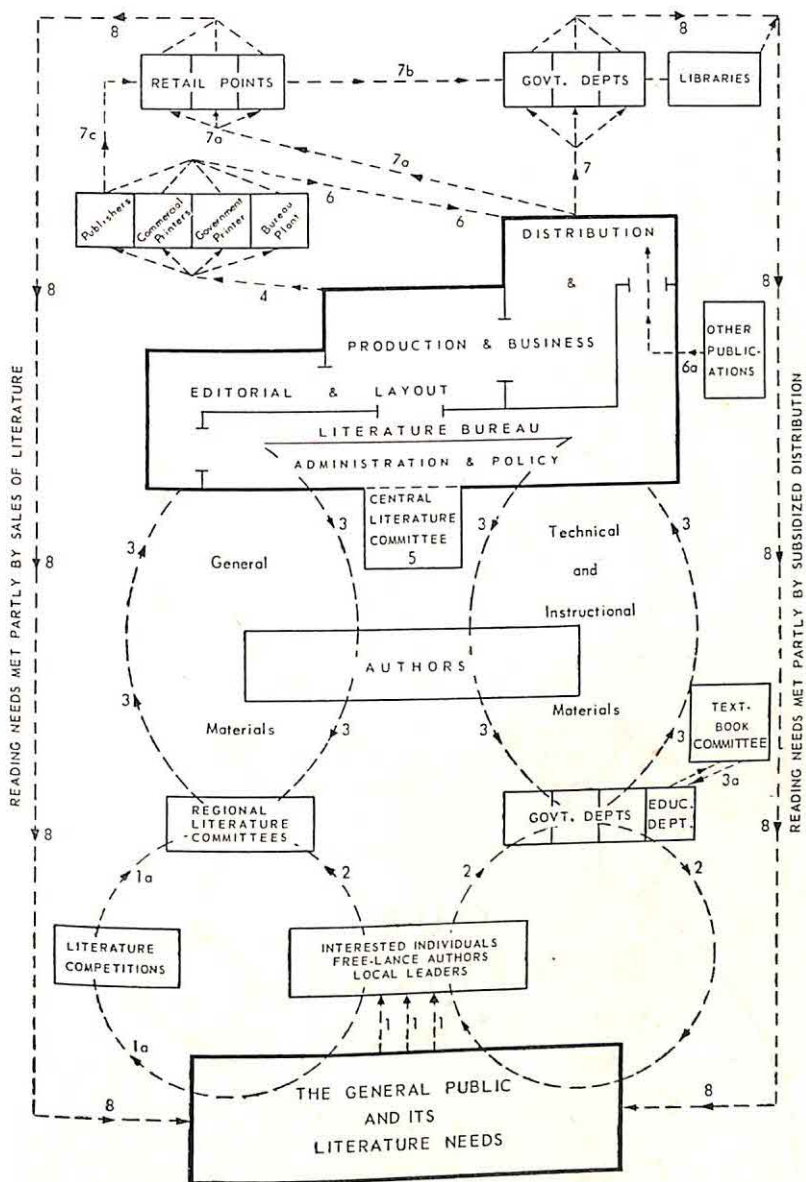


Diagram 1. Organization, relationships and functions of a literature bureau.

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

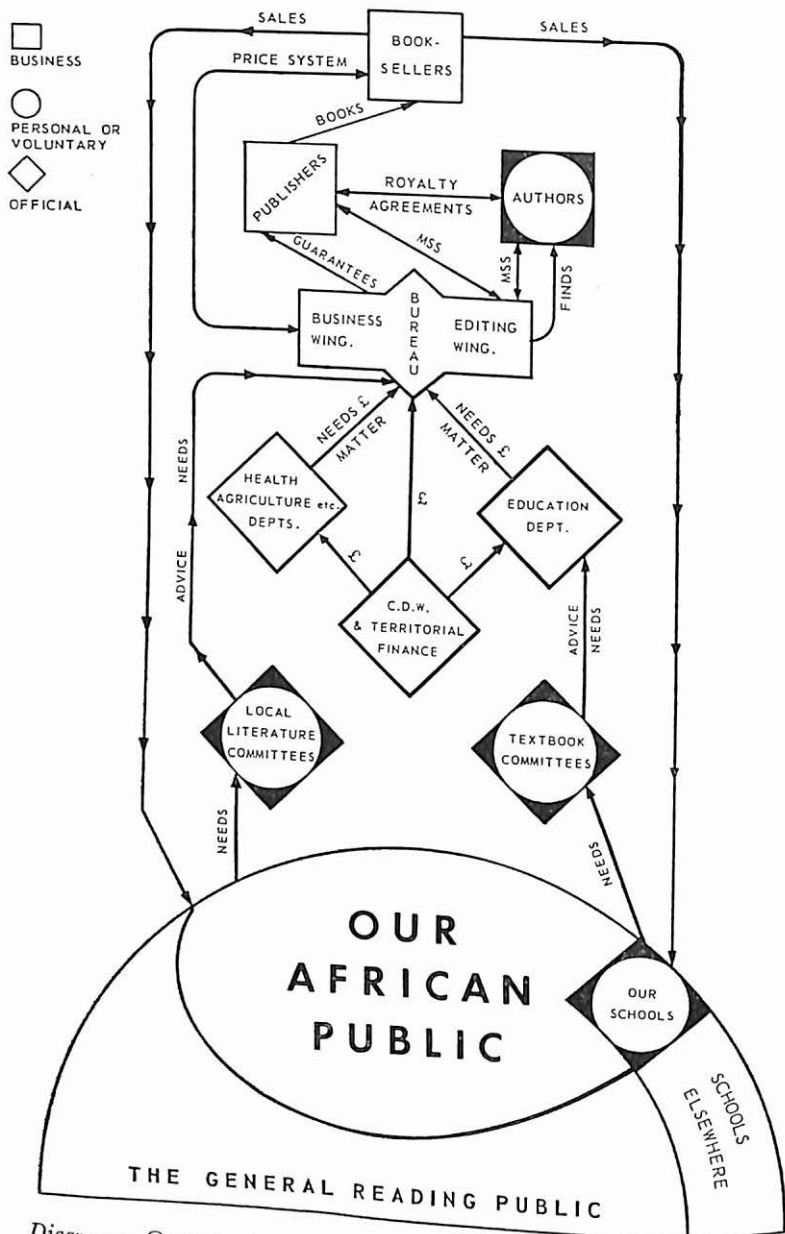


Diagram 2. Organization of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publication Bureau.

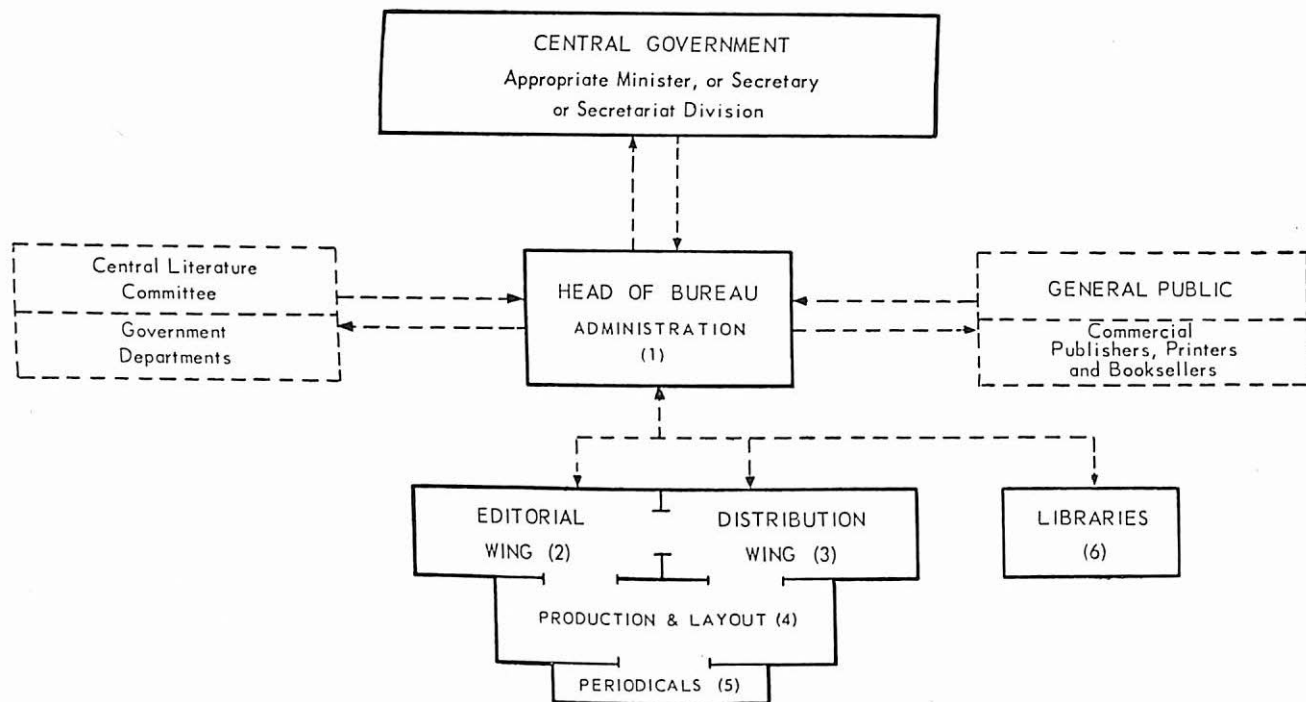
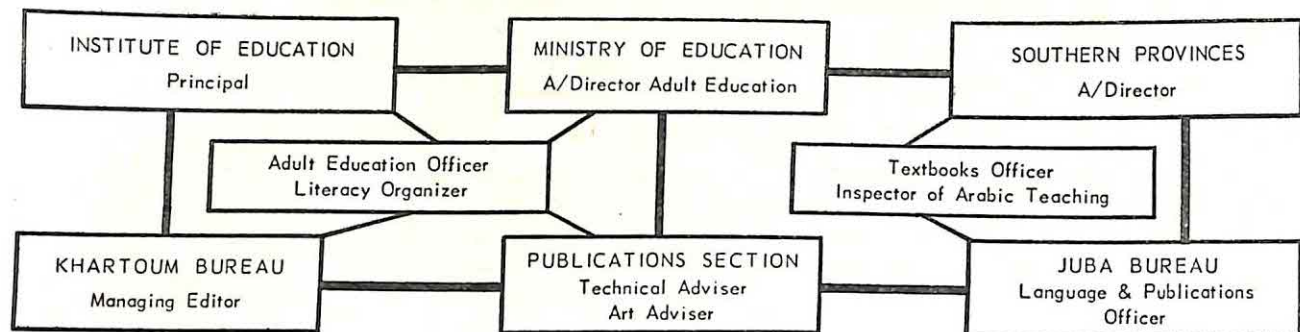


Diagram 3. Administration and structure of a literature bureau.



KHARTOUM BUREAU

1 Textbooks Editor	1 Periodicals Editor	1 Managing Editor	1 Business Manager	1 Chief Clerk	1 Storekeeper
3 Sub-Editors		1 Art Editor	1 A/Business Manager	3 Clerk Typists	3 Packers
		5 Illustrators	1 Bookkeeper	3 Messengers	1 Printer

JUBA BUREAU

1 Arabic Editor	1 A/Managing Editor	1 Language & Publications Officer	1 Business Manager	3 Clerk Typists	2 Printers
	2 Illustrators		1 Packer Storeman	2 Messengers	3 Binders

Diagram 4. Organization of the Sudan Publications Bureau, 1952.

Alternatively, this bureau can be reduced by telescoping some of the functions and operations of various staff members. But in each case the basic pattern and relationships remain much the same. Variations are described below, but it may be noted here that it is neither necessary nor practicable to start a bureau in a new area, no matter how large, with the complete organization and staff indicated in Diagram 3. A start can be made with a much smaller organization. The organization indicated in Diagram 3 represents a literature bureau as a well-established and going concern rather than as an initial structure.

Diagram 1 indicates the organization, relationships and functions of a literature bureau; reading from the bottom upwards and following the numbered arrows the explanation is as follows:

1. The literature needs of the public become known to interested individuals, e.g., local leaders, government officials, and potential authors; in some cases this will result in the preparation of draft manuscripts.
 - 1a. The conduct of literature competitions by regional literature committees in co-operation with the literature bureau is a useful means not only of securing manuscripts but also of discovering authors and obtaining information about the needs and tastes of the reading public.
2. Needs and draft manuscripts will be brought to the attention of regional literature committees, where they exist, or to the attention of the appropriate government department. The tendency will be for needs for basic materials to be dealt with by government departments, while supplementary materials will be more the concern of regional literature committees.
3. Government departments and literature committees, after considering the matters brought to their attention, will make recommendations to the literature bureau which will then conduct the consultation and liaison indicated in arrow 3. At this time the selection of an author may be confirmed.
 - 3a. The education department, because of the special nature of its requirements and the large amount of material involved, will frequently have its own textbook committee.
4. Following the preparation of a satisfactory manuscript, resulting from the work at stage 3, the literature bureau will pass it to a selected printer or publisher.
5. Before doing so, the bureau may wish to obtain advice from its central literature committee; this will apply especially to materials which the bureau itself is sponsoring. The chairman of the central committee should be a very senior official.
6. On completion of printing or publication, material will be taken

into the literature bureau's distribution wing or a central book depot.

- 6a. Selected materials other than those sponsored by the bureau may also be taken into the distribution wing.
7. After the necessary costings have been completed and prices calculated, supplies will be made available to government departments (7); others will go to book stores and other retail points (7a); some government departments and institutions will be encouraged to obtain their supplies from retail points rather than from the bureau (7b); the more experienced booksellers may obtain their supplies of 'guarantee' books direct from publishers (7c).
8. Thus some of the needs of the reading public are met by distribution from government departments, while others are met by the development of facilities for purchasing literature.

Diagram II indicates in more detail the administration and organization within the bureau itself. In the limits within which it is possible to generalize, this organization would be suitable for a region with a population of from three to ten million, having from two to four main languages, reasonably homogeneous culturally, and being approximately 50 per cent literate and having a strong determination to eradicate illiteracy.

Staffing Pattern

The following explanation of staffing and functions should be read in conjunction with the diagram.

Administrative

Staff. Head of bureau; business manager; bookkeeper; administrative assistant(s); librarian and materials officer; secretary to the bureau.

Functions. Advising the government on matters pertaining to literature provision in the territory, and subsequently interpreting and executing the government's policy. Supervision of compilation and presentation of the bureau's budget and consolidated financial records and general statistics. General direction of policy, administration and organization of the bureau's work as a whole. Selection and approval of manuscripts for publication, and supervision of the publications programme; decisions as to whether to use the direct print system or to work through publishers under the guarantee system; confirmation of guarantees with publishers. Policy regarding the development of the distribution system. Development of and liaison with central and

regional literature committees, and liaison with government departments. The dissemination of general information, progress reports, and sample materials from other areas, etc. Organization of literature competitions. Collation of information about territorial and regional literacy percentages, and compilation of statistics. (This function may be undertaken by some other government department, but the information must be available to the bureau.)

Editorial Wing

Staff. Editorial officer(s); reader(s); officer-in-charge of translations; translator(s).

Functions. Preliminary reading of manuscripts. Consultation with other wings and submission of recommendations for publication, and proposals to the head of the bureau regarding their treatment. Preliminary decisions, in co-operation with other wings, about the size of an edition. Organization and supervision of preparation of translations and adaptations; maintenance of the panel of names of people who can help. Supervision of the work of editorial trainees. Submission of ideas and suggestions to other government departments, regional literature committees, etc. Questions concerning orthography.

Distribution Wing

Staff. Business assistant(s); store-keeper(s); packer(s); retail assistant(s); retail trainees.

Functions. Warehousing of materials produced by the bureau and those obtained from elsewhere. Provision of supplies to government departments and retail agencies. Provision of assistance and business advice, etc., to retailers, and general development of the distribution system. Maintenance of stock and distribution records and related financial accounting. (Sometimes stocking and supply of school materials.)

Production and Layout Wing

Staff. Production officer; artist(s) and layout officer(s); machinist; proof-reader(s); trainees.

Functions. Technical advice and supervision of the production of layouts and preparation of illustrations, in co-operation with other wings of bureau. Technical supervision of printing-paper and binding selection, liaison with printers or publishers, seeing the material through the press; proof-reading in co-operation

with editorial wing. Maintenance of panel of names of printers and publishers, with information about the kind of work they are best able to undertake. Technical advice to the head of the bureau regarding development of new printing techniques and regarding possible assistance which might be given to printers within the territory in preference to establishing the bureau's own plant. Supervision and operation of the bureau's machines, if any. Production of any experimental work undertaken.

Periodicals

Staff. Periodicals editor; illustrator; despatch clerk; trainee(s).

Functions. The production of a periodical has many problems different from those involved in the production of other materials. The material itself is of a different kind, and different layouts are required. The periodical may have to deal with advertising matter; above all, it works to entirely different time schedules. If the periodical is of any size or complexity, and especially if it is produced more often than quarterly, it is desirable that it should have its own editor; otherwise the work of the other wings may be seriously dislocated. The editor may be able to call on the production and layout wing and the distribution wing for assistance, but here again, if the periodical develops to any extent it may be essential to give the editor a basic staff of his own, though this staff may well be staff seconded from the other wings of the bureau to gain additional experience.

Library Services

The question of whether library services should form part of the literature bureau organization, or whether they should be administered by other departments, is largely a matter of suiting the administrative convenience and previous practices of the territory concerned. But if the bureau is to be responsible for library services, they will be administered separately from the other wings and their staffing will depend entirely on the number and size of the libraries concerned. The bureau may be responsible for staffing the libraries or it may merely act as an advisory and supply agency to libraries run under other, and possibly various, auspices.

General Staff

This will comprise typists, messengers, and vehicle driver(s), as warranted by the work.

In the administrative section (see also Diagram 2) we find the head of the bureau and the business manager side by side. This reflects the policy of the bureau to encourage the development of literature provision along normal self-supporting commercial lines right from the start. Nevertheless in appropriate circumstances a good deal of telescoping of the functions of the business manager and bookkeeping side in the administrative section and the business assistant in the distribution wing is often possible. When the bureau does not have its own central book depot (i.e., it carries out this aspect of its work through some existing organization), much of the actual physical work of the book distribution side disappears, and the remaining work is of an administrative, liaison and stimulatory kind; this can be carried out by the bureau's administrative section, and the posts listed under the distribution wing consequently disappear. The work will be shared between the business manager/bookkeeper and the head of the bureau and his staff. This is also the case in the initial stages of the development of the bureau, when the amount of material to be dealt with is fairly small. On the other hand, when a bureau does have its own book depot, but when the work is only of medium size, it may well be that there is no need to have a separate business manager in the administrative section; most of his work can be carried out by the officer in charge of the book depot and the remainder can be shared by the staff in the administration section.

The posts of administrative assistant and librarian and materials officer in the administrative section depend entirely on the size and scope of the work to be done, and would be justified only in the case of the largest bureaux. Much of the work of the administrative assistant can be shared with the editorial officer(s) in the editorial wing, and the work of the librarian and materials officer would be insufficient to warrant a separate officer in all but the largest bureaux. It is difficult to dispense with the assistance of a good secretary, even in a small bureau.

Secretaries of regional literature committees or branches of the bureau will only be required by the larger bureaux, or when the work has reached an advanced stage, or in cases where the territory covered is divided by very marked linguistic or cultural differences.

In the editorial wing, the appointment of an editorial officer will need early consideration in any bureau, and indeed may precede, without out-ranking in importance, the appointment of the business officer. The most suitable editorial officer will often be a linguist himself, in which case it is frequently possible to dispense with the services of an officer in charge of translations until

the work necessitates it. This possibility is increased if it proves practicable to make extensive use of competent translators outside the bureau on a fee basis; however, the resulting absence of facilities for training people in the art of translation is not one that should be accepted lightly in regions where translations are likely to be a matter of continuing importance. As indicated in an earlier section, some of the readers and translators will be on the permanent staff of the bureau, while others will be seconded to it from elsewhere. It is the practice of the Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureau to combine their functions under the title of Reader Translator; this is a useful way of maintaining a sense of realism in their work and increasing the value of their training. The number of reader/translators required will depend on the amount of work to be done and the number of languages to be provided for, but it is from their ranks that we may look for future editorial and other bureau officers and secretaries of regional literature committees or branches of the bureau. The post is thus an important one, and the number appointed may be influenced by the amount of importance attached to training and the probability of future development. The work of preparing adaptations is one of the functions of editorial officers and, where they have had previous suitable experience, they will also assist the head of the bureau in some of his duties and in the liaison with regional literature committees and other government departments.

The staffing of the production and layout wing depends to a considerable extent on the relative proportions between the materials being produced by the bureau itself under the direct print system and those being produced through publishers under the guarantee system. A high proportion of materials being produced by the direct print system increases the amount of work to be done by the production and layout department. If adequate commercial and professional facilities exist within the territory and it is possible to compile a reasonable panel of artists who are prepared to work on a fee basis, it may be possible to reduce this section substantially and to handle the work mainly through the administrative and editorial sections. But the work is of a highly specialist nature, and even work done outside on a fee basis needs careful supervision; the risk of waste and unsatisfactory productions is considerable.

An example of a very simple and inexpensive type of organization is one projected for one of the islands in the Pacific area, and may be of interest in that it could also serve as a pattern for the starting point of a branch of a larger bureau. The conditions were

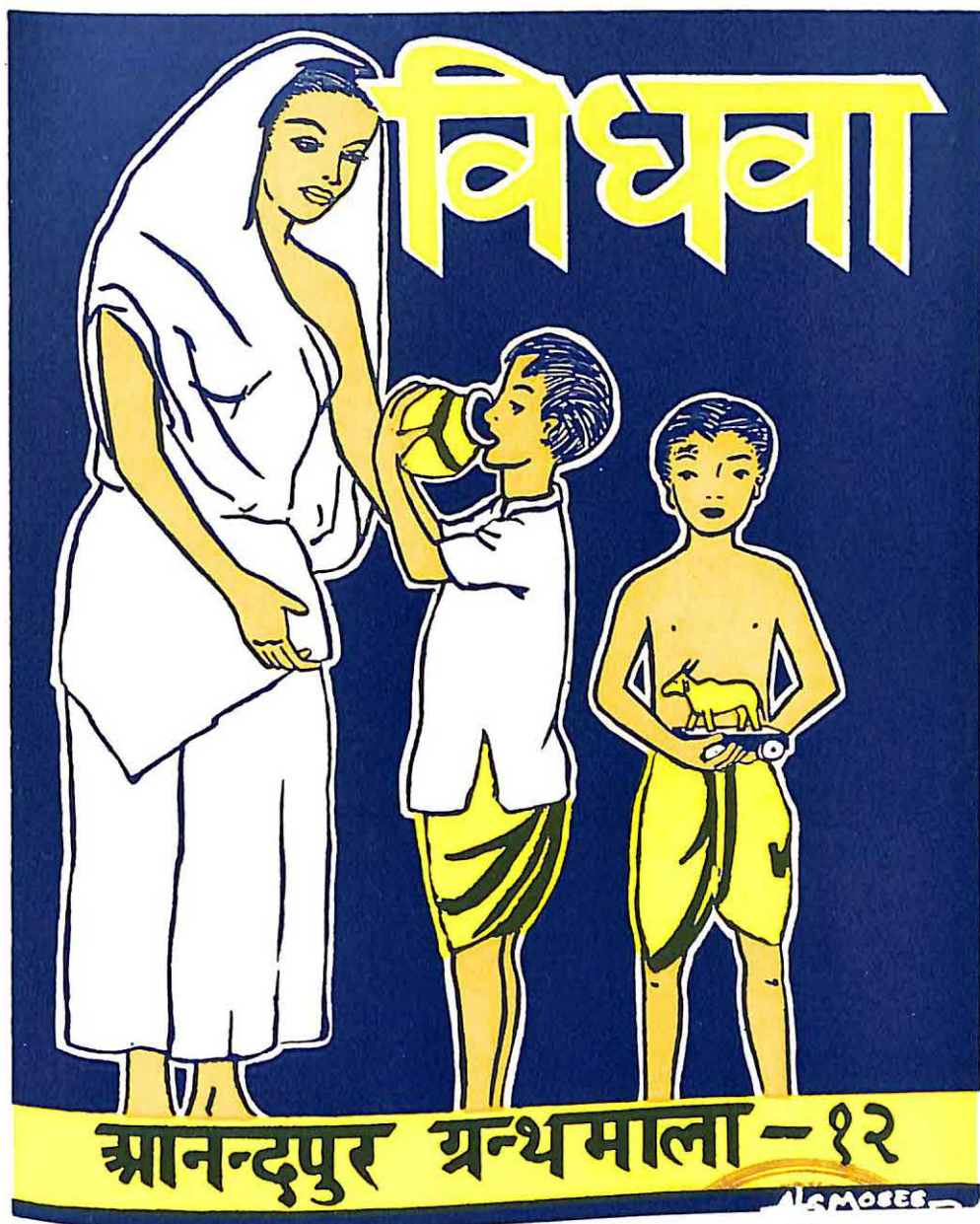


Plate I. Well designed and cheerful covers attract readers. (See also Plates II, IV and V.) This is the cover of *Vidhva* (Widow), published by the Allahabad Agricultural Institute's Literacy Training Centre.

मोती माया



मोती माया ग्रन्थमाला - १

Plate II. The cover of *Motinaya* (String of Pearls), published by the Literacy Training Centre of the Allahabad Agricultural Institute.

a small compact area with easy communications; a population of some 80,000, homogeneous in language and culture; a high percentage of literacy in the mother tongue but practically no reading material available, with a strong additional need for facility in a world language (in this case English); and an absence of any library or bookselling facilities.

A survey indicated that, although the general needs were well recognized, it was unlikely in the conditions prevailing that any one part of the work would justify its own full-time officer; consequently progress had tended to be retarded through being no one's particular responsibility in some aspects, and through responsibility being too sub-divided in others. The chief needs were a stimulus and continuous attention to the production of more and better materials in the local language; an improvement in the distribution system, both for locally produced materials and for books in English; and the provision of library facilities.

Bearing in mind the small scale of the work, the solution proposed was the establishment of a (voluntary) Literature and Language Committee with the following terms of reference:

To draw up detailed proposals for the establishment of a central library; if and when such a library is established, to act on behalf of the government as the governing body of the library, and to be responsible for the selection of books to be purchased by the library within the framework of such finance as may be made available to it for that purpose.

To be the body responsible for keeping in review all problems relating to the improvement of the written form of the language, and to make such recommendations as appear warranted to the government.

To encourage and organize by any suitable means available to it the production of sound locally produced literature.

To keep in review problems relating to the distribution and sale of useful literature within the territory.

The committee recommended was as follows: chairman, the secretary to the government; alternative chairman, the Director of Education; members, the Director of Education and five other members; secretary, a paid officer with the duties described hereunder.

It was also proposed to establish a small central book depot, which would stock and supply schoolbooks as well as general reading material, stimulate the distribution of books throughout the island, and supply books to the central library, if and when established.

To ensure continued and active pursuit of the work the

appointment of a full-time officer was proposed, who would combine the functions of secretary and executive officer to the Literature and Language Committee, manager of the book depot, and in the initial stages officer-in-charge of the central library. It was proposed that this officer should have four subordinate assistants to share between them the clerical and routine work, but that at least two of them should be classed as trainees for more responsible work, either on the library side or on the literature production side.

One other feature of the scheme concerns school libraries for the area's 105 schools. Hitherto these little libraries had been supplied and serviced by the Education Department, using the part-time services of departmental officers and teachers; in order to leave these officers more time to devote to the educational duties which only they can perform, and to take advantage of the improved facilities which the scheme provides, the supply and servicing of these school libraries is to be provided by the central library and book depot; but the Director of Education maintains his close interest and influence by virtue of his position on the Literature and Language Committee.

The scheme therefore provides an example of the way the many related literature problems of a small area can be assured of the necessary continuous and specialized attention without the establishment of any very elaborate and costly organization.

The Appointment and Qualifications of Staff

The first step in initiating a bureau will be to appoint a director and his secretary. The director will need to spend most of his first year in making a survey of the kind of matters referred to in this study; in ensuring that other government departments and commercial bodies understand the nature of the problem and the work of the proposed organization; in ascertaining the problems of these bodies and securing their co-operation; in drawing up a preliminary plan of action and draft budget for presentation to the government; and in casting round for suitable staff to initiate work in the second year. It will usually be found helpful to appoint a provisional central literature committee as soon as possible, and actively to seek its advice and support. By the end of the first year a short-term publications programme covering the most urgent needs should have been drawn up, and a fairly clear picture of publications policy for the next two or three years should have presented itself.

The Director will need to be a man of considerable administra-

tive calibre, preferably with wide and varied experience in the educational field. It is desirable that he should have, or be enabled to acquire, some appreciation of the techniques and cost structures and problems in the field of publishing. He should also have the sort of qualifications required of the editorial officer. His work in dealing with government departments on the one hand and members of public and commercial bodies on the other is not an easy one, and he should have the necessary personal qualities and be given the appropriate status to secure the required co-operation.

The next appointments, early in the second year, are likely to be either the editorial officer or the officer-in-charge of the production and layout wing. If these officers are not appointed simultaneously, the order of their appointment will be largely determined by local circumstances. Where these require a great deal of direct print work, and especially when this is combined with a lack of adequate local commercial facilities, the establishment of a production and layout section acquires increased urgency, for little literature can be produced until such facilities are available. In these circumstances, the appointment of production and layout staff may precede that of the editorial wing. However, it must be recognized that although this will ensure attention being given to basic materials sponsored by the various government departments, it is likely to retard attention being given to supplementary materials and general and recreational reading materials for adults—this aspect of literature production being one of the chief duties of the editorial wing. The qualifications of the officer-in-charge of the production and layout wing will be those which will enable him to discharge the duties described earlier; experience of working in the territory is an obvious advantage, but the qualifications required are technical and are not greatly modified by local conditions.

When reasonable production facilities are available, either through the government printer, or commercial houses, the appointment of staff for the editorial wing, with perhaps the addition of an artist, may precede that of the production and layout wing; this will enable progress to be made simultaneously in the production of both basic and supplementary materials.

A good officer to take charge of the editorial side is not always easy to find; his first qualification must be a clear understanding of the customs and culture of his readers; ideally he should combine something of the qualifications of an anthropologist, linguist, and publisher, and while he must have a sympathetic understanding of the work and needs of educationists, he should perhaps avoid thinking of himself too much as an instructor.

It is unlikely that the business manager's appointment can be delayed beyond the end of the second year, no matter whether the bureau decides to establish its own book depot or to work through existing organizations. The business manager's post is a vitally important one; he should, if possible, have experience of the book trade, certainly of some retail trade and he should clearly understand the cost structures and practices of the book trade. He must also have accountancy qualifications and the bureau's progress will be considerably influenced by his advice and by the efficiency with which he organizes and develops the distribution system. Moreover both the editorial wing and the production and layout wing will be influenced in their work by the reaction of the public to their products; this will be evidenced at the bureau's most sensitive spot, the distribution system, of which the business manager is in charge.

These then are the most important posts. The remainder will be filled by more junior officers—not of lower calibre, but perhaps of less experience. As in all undertakings, they will gain experience in their work, and may be appointed for their background qualifications and future potential rather than for their actual experience. It is not possible to be specific about rates of pay; but as a guide it may perhaps be mentioned that the older established bureaux have considered it proper to fix the salary of the director at something between the salaries of the assistant directors and directors of social service departments, such as education, agriculture, etc., while salaries for other posts have corresponded with equivalent posts, or ratios to the director, found in other government departments.

Policy Problems

The director of the bureau is responsible for the publications programme and much depends on his experience, integrity and common sense. He will, in all cases of doubt, be wise to seek the advice and guidance of his central advisory literature committee.

A particular difficulty arises when dealing with manuscripts whose publication may be controversial or of doubtful success financially. While literature bureaux, being government organizations, will naturally avoid political publications, they may often be called upon to make decisions about manuscripts which may be controversial or doubtful for other reasons. For example, local history and tradition often makes popular reading material, but tends to be controversial, especially when it is based on oral tradition and inextricably mixed up with legend. Then again, the

written word tends to be more restrained in its expression than the spoken word, but this is not always appreciated by the writers of new literature. Consequently manuscripts will be received which may appear new and unusual in their content and expression, and there may be little or no precedent by which the bureau can judge their popularity or acceptability.

While there is no infallible method by which the bureau can judge these matters, there are several ways in which it can try and deal with them. Thus when dealing with manuscripts where fact and fiction may be hard to distinguish, careful attention to the title may be helpful; for example, in the English language the 'history' of such and such a people or thing tends to imply something well authenticated, whereas if the word 'history' is changed to 'story' the implication of known fact may be subtly lessened; the use of the words 'tales about . . .' may lessen the force of assertion still more. The good editor may look for equivalents of such shades of authenticity or assertion within the particular language concerned. Carefully worded prefaces may assuage possible controversy in cases where the uncertainty about publication is due not so much to the possibility of controversy as to the lack of any guide or precedent regarding the possible popularity of the book as regards its content, or acceptability as regards its mode of expression. But it may be remembered that it is part of the function of a bureau to gain information about the reading tastes of the new reading public, and it can only do this by frankly adopting an experimental approach in some of its publications—its function is not that of a censor. While financial success is to be aimed at, it is not the only yardstick, and what is lost on one particular publication may be more than repaid on future publications through the information gained.

SUMMARY AND NOTES

By Dr. Rupert East

The study by Mr. Bruce Roberts describes the functions and organization of a literature bureau, as the means of providing literature of all kinds in territories which have not yet reached the stage where commercial publishing fulfils all requirements. It deals successively with such questions as the purpose of the bureau, the collection and editing of material, production, distribution, costing and administration.

The author's main thesis is that a literature bureau should be regarded not as a permanent instrument for the production of literature, but as a means of filling the gap until such time as commercial publishing can take over the task, and that all its activities should be planned with this end in view. He therefore favours making use of whatever local facilities exist—outside authors, publishers, printing presses and retailers—rather than having the bureau itself undertake the functions which these respectively perform. On the same principle, he prefers the employment of a publisher (except in the case of ephemeral publications), on a guarantee basis, to a system of direct contract with a printer, and is opposed, on the whole, to a bureau having its own printing press.

As, however, he wishes to cover all the conditions and territories in which a bureau might operate, and to present a composite picture taken from a number of different bureaux actually in existence, he qualifies his recommendations by adding that the extent to which they can be put into effect may vary according to local circumstances.

His section on costing and budgeting is also based on the principle that all expenses of the bureau, including overheads (which may be borne on other government votes), should be reflected in the retail price of every publication, whether or not this be reduced by a calculated subsidy, following the procedure of commercial publishing firms.

It should be observed that this study is concerned only with literature-producing agencies under the direct control of the government. Those described are, in fact, government departments staffed by government officers. It does not include semi-official or independent agencies such as the Burma Translation Society, the Gaskiya Corporation (Nigeria) as originally constituted, Literacy House (Allahabad), or the Jamia Millia.

The fact that this alternative exists does not vitiate the author's main argument, for the big unofficial agency may also be regarded as a characteristic of the transitional period, to be superseded eventually by a complete system of commercial publishing at a much later stage of

economic and educational development. All that is said with regard to the literature bureau working in close co-operation with other government departments applies with equal, or greater, force to the independent agency, and the need for accurate and realistic costing and budgeting will be even more obvious in the case of the latter, whether or not it is in receipt of a subsidy.

There still remains the fundamental question of how far the establishment of an efficient printing press by a literature bureau or large unofficial agency, and the assumption of responsibility for other branches of literature production such as authorship and distribution, will impede progress towards the eventual goal of total commercial publishing.

There is certainly a danger of any big organization discouraging private enterprise, and this is especially true of literature production in its early stages, where it may become practically a monopoly. But there are special circumstances which affect the case (at least in certain areas), a number of which are recognized by the author of this study (for example those mentioned on page 130).

In the first place, if the territory is one in which there is not already an established literature—which will presumably usually be the case in an area which has the need for a literature bureau—or at any rate if there is no suitable literature of the special kind required, it cannot be expected that authors will be found ready to hand among the general public. It is therefore unlikely that satisfactory results will be produced by a simple appeal for suitable manuscripts. Even if experienced authors already exist, they will not naturally write material which, for example, can be used for village adults at a particular stage of literacy—a highly specialized form of writing which needs a lot of preliminary research and experiment. The work in this case is better done inside the agency by a group of writers especially trained, or in training, for the purpose and carried out in conjunction with all the necessary techniques of pre-testing, post-evaluation and reader research.

The following remarks are concerned primarily with languages which have no literary tradition, or whose literature is still in its infancy, but they also apply, in a more limited sense, to literary languages which have so far not produced a satisfactory form of writing for a special purpose, or particular class of the community. In this case, the great need is for first-rate models on which to base future books and to provide a standard by which they can be judged. These may appear unexpectedly from the hand of some free-lance genius, but they are more likely to result from years of practice and experiment, carried out by a staff working with this object in view.

Good models are very desirable in the early stages of literature production, because if the first books to be issued are of a poor quality as regards style, orthography, grammar and form, they set a precedent which may persist for a very long time. This is especially noticeable in school books. The children acquire bad literary habits at an impressionable age, grow up with them, and pass them on to the next generation. It is almost impossible to root out the old habits and prejudices, once they have become encrusted in the language. For this reason, it is hard to agree with the

dictum that quantity is more important than quality in the early work of literature-producing agencies. If a high standard of work is sought at the outset, at least from those engaged in the actual preparation of the initial material—authors, translators and proof-readers—it will have an incalculable effect on future writing in that language or type of production, and the extra care and time spent will not have been wasted. If one section concentrates on this, quantity can still be achieved; the two things are not incompatible. It is largely a question of getting the very best people together at the start. The production of a few good models may take five or ten years, but that is a short time in the life of a language.

The same remarks apply to illustrations. One first-rate artist, who also takes the trouble to work out the most easily understood and effective type of illustrations for the purpose in hand, will have an influence which will be noticeable long after he has ceased to illustrate. Not only will he leave successors who emulate his style, but the reading public will come to demand the same standard. It is equally easy to inculcate a bad tradition of book illustrating, which the public grows to expect and eventually prefers.

Translation and adaptation also need trained experts, especially when the background and thought-forms of the two languages are very different. Except in territories where such experts already exist, the work can hardly be let out on a fee basis and must be done by the trained staff.

The author of this study recognizes that the services which can be rendered by outside publishers depend on the area and local conditions. In this matter, the literature-producing agency which genuinely wishes to co-operate with publishers and to 'let them in on the market' may find itself in a difficulty. Take the case of an agency which has been started for the purpose of providing reading materials in the vernacular or vernaculars of the type required, and where there is no well-established organization for distributing it to the people in the villages it is hoped to reach; with the best will in the world, it is hard to see in this case how the outside publisher can be of much help in the early stages. He cannot provide the material, for he lacks the local contacts; for this, and for the work of editing and final proof-reading, he must rely on the staff of the agency. He does not print it, and without a knowledge of the language cannot even mark up the copy. Nor can he distribute the finished article. He will put up the capital—provided the agency guarantees him against risk—warehouse the stock, and arrange for new editions when needed. But, in many cases of the type described, there are no local publishers able to do this and it is a question of using outside publishing firms, possibly with international interests. These will doubtless produce books of a better appearance than could be made on the spot, but they are not really helping to build up a local system of literature production; they will not even use local printers.

In countries with a more advanced economy, such as Pakistan or India, there is of course no lack of local publishers, some of high standing. But even here it would not be fair to expect them to produce satisfactory books in this new field, at least until good models have been created to guide them. Nor would the system of competing for publishing contracts

(at one time followed for educational books in Pakistan) be suitable for this type of literature.

Some educational publishing firms of world-wide repute have produced books which have been translated into many languages, often with the co-operation of local agencies. By using the same illustrations and make-up, and planning on a large scale, they have been able to turn out well-composed readers at a relatively low price. But the value of these is limited by the fact that material produced in one country, of however general a character, is seldom well suited for use in another, and illustrations almost never. At this early stage, needs vary from one district to the next, even within the same territory. An exception may be made in the case of books dealing with 'peoples of other lands' and subjects of world-wide interest, but these are not perhaps very suitable for people at the first stages of literacy in secluded areas.

It is therefore suggested that the praiseworthy desire to co-operate with publishers, and to make every use of available local resources, may sometimes have to await a general educational and economic advance. In the meantime, the literacy agency may have to assume functions that it would prefer, on principle, to leave to private enterprise, in the fields of authorship, or adaptation, illustrating, publishing and printing.

But while actually doing this, it can still contribute a great deal to the ultimate object in view—a fully educated people, writing, producing, publishing and selling every kind of literature it needs. It is at least an alternative theory that the best way a literature agency can help to achieve this aim, in its first years, is to place the emphasis on training of staff and the production of first-rate models, and not to allow itself to be deflected from this purpose by the demand for quantity, the exigencies of production time-tables, and the temptation of a long list of mediocre publications. It may be that by so doing it will, in the long run, render a greater service to the future literature of the country by founding a tradition of good writing and production and by training a body of good authors and technicians, who will carry on the work when the usefulness of the bureau or agency has come to an end.

APPENDIX 2

COST SHEETS IN USE AT THE EAST AFRICAN LITERATURE BUREAU

SAMPLE COST SHEET A

Office Estimate of Cost

MS. No. 1,000. Title: *Leprosy* (Luganda)

Printing cost		Sh.	Cts.
5,050 copies ¹ printer	.	400	00
Art: Half-tone blocks	.	100	00
Author's payment: nil	.	—	—
House charge ² 2½%	.	10	00
Carriage reserve ³ 3½%	.	10	00
Contingency ⁴ 2½%	.	10	00
Subsidy	.	530	00
	.	280	00
Total estimated cost after subsidy	.	250	00
Net estimated cost per copy	.		05
Add 100% ⁵	.		05
Selling price to be	.		10

1. Although 5,050 copies were printed, the costing is based on 5,000 only. The remaining 50 are therefore available for free distribution, for sales promotion, presentation to libraries, etc.
2. House charge. Numerous minor payments have to be made, e.g. general bureau advertising, etc. A reserve of 2½ per cent has proved adequate for the E.A.L.B. but other areas might want to charge more or less.
3. Carriage reserve. The E.A.L.B. distributes its books to wholesalers (see note 6) free of charge over an area covering 680,000 square miles. This enables the books to be sold at the same price all over East Africa. The cost of carriage is charged to this reserve account and has proved adequate.
4. Contingency account. A reserve account for any expenditure on the E.A.L.B. Publishing Fund stock—shelving, etc., which is not considered to be normal departmental expense.
5. Profit margin. Some profit is essential if the fund is to be kept buoyant. The E.A.L.B. margin has proved enough. It should be explained that the E.A.L.B. Publishing Fund is used only for urgent, experimental or very cheap publications. The bureau is, by its terms of reference, precluded from competing with the publishing trade. If a book is likely to be a normal commercial venture, it is passed on to a commercial publisher, sometimes with, sometimes without, a guarantee to buy on trade terms all stock unsold by a specified date, usually 3 or 5 years from 1 January after publication.

Discount: 25% retailers⁶

33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % wholesalers⁷

Subsidy notes:⁸ From bureau's Subsidy Fund

Other notes: total cost of blocks charged to this edition; editions in the other 4 vernaculars need not be charged

Date: 31 December 1956

C. G. Richards

Director, East African Literature Bureau

SAMPLE COST SHEET B

Office Estimate of Cost

MS. No. 500. Title: *How Kenya is Governed*

	Sh.	Cts.
Printing cost		
7,550 copies: printer	9,875	00
Art.: Cover block	100	00
Author's payment: fee for revising original edition . .	560	00
House charge 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	247	00
Carriage reserve 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	247	00
Contingency 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	247	00
Total estimated cost	11,276	00
Net estimated cost per copy	1	51
Add 100%	1	51
Selling price to be	3	00

Discount: 25% retailers

33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % wholesalers

Subsidy notes: none

Other notes: copyright is owned by bureau.

C. G. Richards

Director, East African Literature Bureau

6. Retailers. These are mainly government officers who take books on sale or return to display and sell as part of the 'follow-up' to their own work. A discount is necessary as in this type of display there is inevitably loss by theft or the spoiling of some copies, or there may be small payments to persons assisting in the display. Some sales are to traders, drawing stocks from one of the three offices of the bureau.
7. Wholesalers. These are bookshops who have branches or re-sell to traders. In the latter case they give to the trader the bureau's 25 per cent retailers' discount and retain 8 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent commission.
8. Subsidy. One-fifth of the bureau's Publishing Fund was written off to a separate Subsidy Fund. If the purpose of the book is such that the selling price must be specially low, e.g., for a leprosy campaign among villagers—or for an adult literacy primer—then the price is fixed accordingly and a sum drawn from the Subsidy Fund to reduce the cost to 50 per cent of the selling price. In some cases, government departments are willing to pay this subsidy from funds allocated for the project for which the book is published.

PART THREE

LITERATURE ORGANIZATIONS
AT WORK

CHAPTER VI

THE BURMA TRANSLATION SOCIETY¹

This was the longest and most detailed study presented to the regional meeting. It shows the courageous attempts being made by the Government of Burma to deal with literature provision in all its aspects, acknowledging freely the difficulties still to be overcome. This case study of a literature organization at work, together with the able summary and comments contributed by Dr. Rupert East (see pages 210-12), provides most valuable material for study by any government contemplating the establishing of a literature production unit. C.G.R.

INTRODUCTION

This is a report on the Burma Translation Society's work in general, with a detailed description of the aspects of the work which are especially concerned with the preparation of materials for newly literate audiences and audiences with limited education. Except for literacy training manuals produced by the Mass Educational Council and occasional extension-type materials produced by government ministries and departments, the society is the only organization in Burma which is producing on a regular basis, and with a policy of continuity, materials for the adult beginning reader.

The society's programme also covers the entire range of audience levels, and includes such publications as encyclopaedias, technical training materials, textbooks, and books of general interest for highly literate audiences. The society's activities extend likewise to training classes for printers and journalists, library services, cultural shows, literary awards, adult evening classes, and so on.

Only recently has the society realized the need for specially prepared materials for audiences of limited reading ability. It is

1. A report of the society's experience to date (February 1956), prepared by the staff of the society.

not enough to make knowledge available in an audience's native tongue. Appropriate knowledge must be selected, and information that is vital to the intended reader, or stories that are entertaining in terms of the intended reader's experience, must be presented using language and format that will be understood, attract, hold, and in some way change the behaviour of the intended audience for the better.

Although, in its beginnings, most of the publications produced by the society were translations from other languages, the society's programme is now that of a publisher which is attempting to satisfy the reading needs of all audiences in Burma, especially in those fields in which commercial publishers have not been able adequately to satisfy the needs.

It is impossible to put on paper the spirit of co-operation of people in all walks of life who assist the society in its programme. It is impossible to describe adequately the many hours of devoted work given by those on advisory committees, technical terms committees, by those who distribute and use our books in educational work throughout the Union of Burma, and by the society's own staff.

Like most of the society's work, this report has been a co-operative and joint effort. Sections of the report have been prepared by U Myo Min, Council Member of the society, U Htin Gyi, Magazine Editor and Director of the Continuing Reading Materials Project, and Bo Ba Ko, Director of the society's Research Division, all working with the society's Ford Foundation Consultant, Dr. Seth Spaulding, who co-ordinated the work of the Report Committee and edited the final document. Dr. Spaulding's secretarial assistant, Mrs. Myrtle Seymour, supervised the preparation of the manuscripts.

We at the society, as purveyors of information through the printed word, are humbled by our task. We realize that there is nothing magical in the printed word. It must be used carefully and it must be made attractive and presented not only with open hands but with insight and understanding of the millions of unseen people with whom we as publishers are dealing. They are unseen but not ignored. For without an audience our publications are worthless.

This document might be termed a 'progress report' of our work with audiences of limited reading ability. No one, certainly not myself, could have foreseen the progress the society has made within the past eight years since a few of us started it. Although we look upon our present work with some pride, we hope that our work as an educational organization will be many times more effective in the future—San Htwar (Managing Secretary).



ဒင်္ဂါးမတ်

အဖွဲ့ကိုမူ ပြည်ထောင်စု ပြန်ပေါင်းပုံစံကိုသို့ ၄ နှစ်တကြိမ် ပါလီမန် ရွေးကောက်ပွဲ ဝန်ကြီးချုပ်ရွေးချယ်ပေးသည်။

နန်းရင်းရန်ကို သုတေသန စစ်ဆေးသည်။ အထက်ကောက် လွှတ်တော် ၂ ရပ်ရှိသည်။ သုတေသနဆွဲပြီး ရွေးကောက် တင်ပြောကိစ္စကိုယ်စားလှယ်ပေါင်း ၂၂၅ ယောက် ပါဝင်သည်။ တပြည်လုံးကို ဖြိုဖြို ထိခွပ်စွဲပြောလွှတ်တော်က စီမံခန့်ခွဲသည်။ ဝင်းမတ်ပြည် အပါအဝင် ဂရင်းလန်နှင့် ပေရိုကျွန်းမှ ကိုယ်စားလှယ် ၂ ဦးပါသည်။ ပါဝင်စံ ပြည်ထောင်စု ပြန်ပေါင်းပုံစံကိုသို့ ပေါင်းပွဲ ထားသော ပြည်နယ်ပေါင်း ၂၁ နယ် ရှိသည်။ အရင်းခံအား ခန့်ထား အုပ်ချုပ်ပေးသည်။

ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်ရှိပြည်တော်မှာ ကိုပင်ဟေ့ဂ် မြို့ဖြစ်သည်။ ပြန်ပေါင်းနိုင်စွမ်း နေ့စဉ် ဓားသုံးနေကြသော ထောပတ်၊ ဒိန်ပဲ စသည် စိသုတ်ဗူးများတွင် အများအားဖြင့် ထိုမြို့နယ်များကို တွေ့မြင် ပတ်ရှုရသည်။

ကိုပင်ဟေ့ဂ်မြို့သည် ရန် ကုန် မြို့ လောက် မ ကျယ် ဝန်း ငွေ့။ လူဦးရေမှာ ၇ သိန်းကျော် ရှိသဖြင့် ရန်ကုန်မြို့၏ လူဦးရေနှင့် ကတူစွာ ဖြစ်သည်။

ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်သည် ဥရောပတိုက်၏ အရှေ့တောင် တည်ရှိသည်။ ပြန်ပေါင်းပုံစံကိုသို့ ပေါင်း ၅၀၀၀ ကျော်မျှ စားကွာသည်။ ရေလမ်းခရီး သင်္ဘောနှင့်လည်း သွားရောက်နိုင်သည်။ လေယာဉ်ပျံနှင့်လည်း သွားနိုင်သည်။

ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်သည် ဥရောပတိုက်မှ ထိုးဖောက်နေသော ကျွန်းဆွယ်နိုင်ငံကလေးဖြစ်သည်။ ပင်လယ်ကြီးများဖြင့် ဂရိန်ရံလျက်ရှိသည် ဆိုရပေမည်။ အရှေ့ဘက်၌ ဆောလတင်ပင်လယ်၊ အနောက်ဘက်၌ ပြောက်တက်ပင်လယ်တို့ ခြံရံနေသည်။ တောင်ဘက်၌ ဂျာမနီပြည်ရှိသည်။ ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်သည် ဆောလတင်ပင်လယ်တွင်း၌ ရှိသော ကျွန်းငယ် ကျွန်းဆွယ် များ အနက် ကျွန်းဆွယ်အစုံဖြစ်သည်။

ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်လုံး၏ အကျယ် အဝန်းမှာ စတုရန်း မိုင်ပေါင်း ၁ သောင်း ၆ ထောင်ကျော်မျှ ရှိသည်။ ပြည်ထောင်စု ပြန်ပေါင်းထက် ၁၅ ဆမျှ ငယ်သည်။ သို့သော် လူဦးရေ ကား ၄ သန်းကျော် (၄၃၇၇၀၀) ရှိလေသည်။ စတုရန်း တစ်မိုင်တိုင်းတွင် လူနေ ၂၆၂ ယောက် သိရှိ၏။ ပြည်ထောင်စု ပြန်ပေါင်းထက် စတုရန်း တစ်မိုင်တွင် လူနေထိုင်ကြသော လူဦးရေထက် ၄ ဆ များသည်။

ဝင်းမတ်ပြည်သည် နိုင်ငံရေးကလေးသဖြင့် သည်းသိပ်တူတူကြုံတိုက်သော အန္တရာယ်ကမ္ဘာက မှီ လေးစားလောက်အောင် တန်းမီ၊ တွားမဲ့ အားလေးသည်။

ယခုအခါတွင် ဝင်းမတ်နိုင်ငံသည် ကမ္ဘာပေါ်တွင် စင်စစ် နန်းစံ နေထဲ ဖြစ်သောနိုင်ငံ အနုအရွယ် အင်ပေါ်လျက် ရှိလေသည်။ အရှေ့ရှိသော်လည်း အင်္ဂလန် နိုင်ငံမှကဲ့သို့ ဘေးချမ်းစွာနေသော အရှေ့ဖြစ်သည်။ အုပ်ချုပ်ရေး

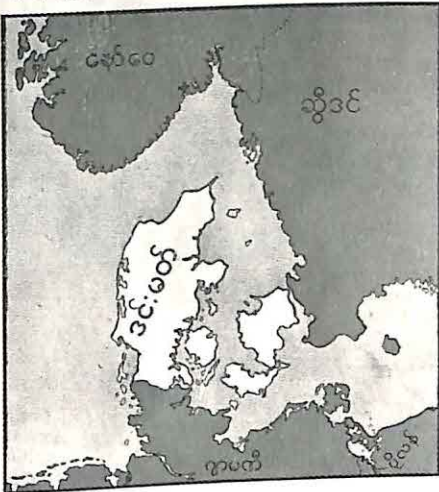


Plate III. A page from *Sapay Beikman*, the Burma Translation Society's monthly periodical.



Plate IV. The covers of three Burma Translation Society publications.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Citizens of Western countries cannot imagine being unable to find printed material in their own language. Burma's people have not been so fortunate. When the Burma Translation Society¹ was founded by the Prime Minister, the Honourable U Nu, in 1947, the average citizen of Burma had only limited access to world knowledge. Except for publications on Buddhism or politics, only a few scattered and sketchy works presenting aspects of the modern world were available in Burmese for the general reader, the student, or the scholar.

The society's mission is to bring Burmese language and literature up to date, and to print and distribute books on all subjects and for all reading audiences and stimulate through its special activities the cultural and intellectual life of Burma. So successful has this stimulation been that it is becoming less and less necessary to depend on foreign authors for materials. Today, very few of the society's publications are direct translations from other languages.

Books for the General Reader

One of the principal aims of the society is to provide the general reading public with literature in Burmese on all aspects of world thought. The *Mass Enlightenment Series* includes books with such titles as *Retail Trade*, *World's Great Scientists*, *Birds of Burma*, and *Microbe Hunters*. The *Pocket Series* and the *Home University Series* include such books as *The United Nations Organization*, *How to Study*, *Budget* and *Alphabet of the Soil*.

Special content series include the *Science Series*, *History Series*, *Fifty Years Series* (covering development in science, travel, sports, education, business and commerce, government and world affairs in the first half of the twentieth century), *Great Book Series* (classics from other countries), and the *Pyidawtha (Welfare State) Series*.

The Pyidawtha series was the society's first attempt to provide simplified materials for adults in rural areas and for supplementary school use. Consisting of 123 titles, so planned as to cover briefly the more general aspects of knowledge of the modern world, these booklets are relatively short (average 40 pages), very fully illustrated (about 40 per cent of total page space), use large type (16 point) and are attractively produced. Selling at 50 pyas² per booklet, they have been most popular. Written by the society's

1. Also referred to below as 'the society' or 'the BTS'.

2. Burmese currency equivalent: 100 pyas equal 1 kyat; 4.75 kyats (ks.) equal U.S. \$1.00.

staff editors under the direction of U Thein Han, Director of Textbook Production of the Government, all 123 titles have been completed in manuscript form and 30 have been printed in editions of 50,000 each. The booklets in this series do not give 'how to do it' information or practical instruction, but are rather a survey of general knowledge. They do not therefore duplicate the continuing Reading Materials Project recently started, to consist of two series for the mass audience with little or no formal education. Series I, the *People's Handbook Series*, will provide in a simple and interesting manner information that is vital to the daily life of the average Burmese villager who has only rudimentary reading ability. Series II, the *Short Story Series*, will present playlets and short stories designed to interest the mass audience with somewhat more advanced reading ability (fourth or fifth standard), and each story will similarly communicate information vital to the social, civic, economic and health improvement of the reader. These series will be prepared by Burmese authors and technicians working in close co-operation, and each booklet, highly illustrated, will be from 16 to 40 pages in length. Sub-series include: health, agriculture, civics, general culture, economics, recreation (see below).

The monthly magazine, entitled *Sapay Beikman* (Palace of Literature), includes popular and highly illustrated articles on science, world history, current events, everyday economics, agriculture, health and general information. The Burmese angle is a 'must' in every article, and simplicity is the keynote of the style. Each month 21,000 copies are distributed to all public schools and libraries and to the general public.

School Books and Reference Materials

All public schools now use Burmese as the medium of instruction¹. The society is one of the largest textbook publishers in Burma, producing the following materials: textbooks for elementary, middle and secondary schools; teachers' handbooks; school library materials; training materials for technical and vocational schools, such as the Insein Technical Institute, the School for Public Health Assistants, etc.

An agreement is under consideration through which the BTS would act as publishers for the Rangoon University in making available university textbooks and reference materials.

Compilation of the *Encyclopaedia of Popular Science* is, at the time

1. There is no multi-language problem in Burma. Except for isolated hill tribes, most of the population speaks Burmese (probably 90-95 per cent of the total population), though in some cases in addition to a native dialect.

of writing, almost complete. Fully illustrated and in simple language, this new series will make available to the Burmese people the various aspects of science. Two volumes out of the total twenty-three are now available.

A fourteen-volume *Burmese Pictorial Encyclopaedia* is in the final stages of completion. The first two volumes have been distributed to all government schools and libraries and to the public. The encyclopaedia, begun in 1949, is a milestone in Burma's progress toward world knowledge—available to all who read Burmese. While giving information of international significance, the major emphasis in the encyclopaedia is on Burmese and Asian culture. Considerable original research was done in gathering information for the encyclopaedia, and scholars have suggested that portions on Asia be made available in English.

Special Activities

Literary awards. Each year a prize is awarded for the best Burmese novel, the best translation of a great book, the best work of the *belles lettres* class, and the best work on any subject of general knowledge. Premier U Nu once described the awards as an attempt to stimulate the production of 'New Life Literature' which should go hand in hand with the 'New Life Culture' that is building up Burma as an independent and sovereign country.

Training classes. When the manuscripts are available, it still remains for the books to be printed and distributed for use by the public. To contribute to the growth of production 'know-how' the BTS directs a continuing training programme for compositors, machinemen, bookbinders, and engravers; these classes are open to all engaged in printing. To promote effective utilization of books, the BTS organizes short-term courses in librarianship for those in charge of reading rooms and school libraries. The society is also planning a series of journalism courses, both in English and Burmese.

Research division. The society has a Research Division designed to: (a) test the effectiveness of the society's publications in interesting intended audiences and communicating to them; (b) establish principles which will help the society in planning future programmes (see pages 197-204).

Sapay Beikman Public Library. The largest public library in Burma (other than information services of foreign governments) is

operated by the society. Membership is free; English and Burmese bookstocks total 5,000, with a book acquisition budget of 37,500 kyats for 1955-56. Six professional staff and 11 sub-professional workers make up a yearly salary expenditure of approximately ks.32,000. Library services include a loan section and reading room, reference section, non-book materials and audio-visual aids section, and separate facilities for the children's library and corner.

Further education classes. Regular classes are held in Rangoon, giving instruction through BTS publications to those who would like to further their education in general or special areas. These classes are timed to suit the convenience of participants and are held throughout the year.

Burmese culture talks and shows. Burmese culture talks and shows are staged in co-operation with the Ministry of Union Culture, usually at the outdoor theatre on the BTS grounds. Often, as many as 1,000 people attend each function. Through these public events, the society encourages public interest in Burmese literature and fine arts.

Educational Publications Study Group. Although a non-governmental organization, the society co-operates closely with the government as well as with private publishers and educational groups. Recently, in order to encourage the production and use of educational publications by government departments and ministries, the society conducted a three-month Educational Publications Study Group. Representatives of fourteen government ministries and departments studied all aspects of educational publications work, from the planning of the over-all programme to the preparation and distribution of individual publications. The study group has developed into a voluntary professional organization which meets regularly and which is beginning important projects in the publishing field. It offers a publications evaluation service and is planning a documentation service to assemble information relevant to book publishing and selling in Burma (see Appendix 2).

Administration

A fifteen-member council manages the society, and the Projects Committee, appointed by the council, plans the publications. The managing secretary carries out council and Projects Committee

decisions, with his editorial and printing staff of approximately 350. There are editorial and administrative committees, made up of leading specialists in all fields, which advise the society on its programme. The Technical Terms Committee draws up and standardizes Burmese equivalents of foreign terms.

The society trains its own translators and writers, although manuscripts from outside authors are gladly accepted and are often indeed solicited. A layout and art section works closely with the editors. In the society's distribution offices in Rangoon, the BTS also maintains an auditorium, sales room, meeting halls, public library, and exhibit rooms.

The printing plant uses the latest monotype automatic composition machines, and the presses include a two-colour Miehle automatic press and several one-colour machines capable of running over 3,000 copies of a 16-page book an hour. A block-laboratory, hand-composition department and bookbinding section complete the printing plant. The 1956-59 development programme includes provision for the addition of over 800,000 kyats worth of equipment to the plant.

Editions are usually 25,000 or more copies of each book. The government chooses the books it considers useful in schools and village libraries and purchases from 15,000 to 20,000 copies of them for distribution. The society usually sells 5,000 copies of each book on the open market and plans to expand the sales organization to increase this figure (see the report on distribution, pages 194-7).

The society's book production, not including the monthly magazine or the encyclopaedia, for the period from 1 October 1954 to 30 September 1955, was as follows: science series, 13; school textbooks, 18; pyidawtha (simple booklets on all aspects of world knowledge), 11; mass enlightenment, 3; vocational training, 3; supplementary school readers, 8; cultural, 2. A total of 1,833,000 copies of these 58 books was produced in the one-year period, making an average of 32,000 copies per book. The 58 books total 5,681 pages of text. In number of titles the 1954-55 production compares favourably with such American concerns as Appleton-Century-Crofts (1954 production 64 titles), Van Nostrand (64 titles), Abingdon Press (60 titles), Crown (55 titles).

In addition to BTS book production, 252,000 copies of the monthly magazine were published during the last fiscal year, and 50,000 copies each of the first two volumes of the fourteen-volume *Burmese Pictorial Encyclopaedia* were made available.

As to the financial side, operational figures for the fiscal year 1954-55 were as follows:

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

<i>Opening Balance</i>	<i>ks.</i>	<i>Expenditure</i>	<i>ks.</i>
On 1 Oct. 1954	470,647	1 Oct. 1954-	
		30 Sept. 1955	4,732,720
Income	7,889,819	Balance, 30 Sept. 1955	3,627,746
Total	8,360,466	Total	8,360,466

The income and the closing balance include a loan of 1,500,000 kyats for the printing of the encyclopaedia, and a special grant of ks.1,800,000 for the new building in town. The 1955-56 budget is in the vicinity of six million kyats.

The government often gives outright grants to the society to help develop its building and equipment facilities, although programme expenses are entirely borne by the society. The society is non-political and the council has insisted that employees are not to participate in party politics.

Development Programme

The Managing Secretary, U San Htwar, was one of the first of the top-level staff to go abroad to compare the society's work with what is happening elsewhere. He was a member of the Burma Education Mission in 1952 which visited educational and cultural institutions throughout the world. He concentrated on detailed observation of educational materials centres and publishing houses in each country.

During 1954 and 1955, with the help of a committee of the Managing Council, under the chairmanship of Professor U Myo Min, and advised by Dr. Seth Spaulding, consultant to the society, U San Htwar devised a development programme, to extend from 1956 to 1959. This programme calls for: (a) expansion in the production of certain types of materials (see section on Continuing Reading Materials Project below); (b) improvement in quality of programme planning and of content and appearance of materials (through consultant services and overseas training of local staff); (c) improved administration (through consultant services and overseas training opportunities); (d) expanded printing facilities (ks.800,000 in new equipment ordered for the period 1955-56, another ks.800,000 authorized during 1956-59, and a new two-storey addition to plant opening in 1956); expanded research activities (through consultant services for the Research Division and funds for overseas training of local staff).

During 1956-59, the society will spend, over and above the

regular annual budget of about six million kyats, a total of approximately ks.5,506,082 on the development programme. Discussions are at present defining continued Ford Foundation participation, which may include provision of needed consultants in small-book distribution, layout and design, communications research, and printing engineering, support of overseas training, and purchase of foreign equipment.¹ Further implications of the development programme are included in the following discussions of specific aspects of the society's work.

This report is not a detailed description of all the society's activities. Only projects directly concerned with specially graded reading materials and periodical literature for rural readers and research and distribution aspects of the programme are included.

CONTINUING READING MATERIALS PROJECT

Two New Series of Books

Lately a change of emphasis in the nature of the society's publications has been taking place, under the guidance of the president of the society, the Hon. U Nu. An even more immediate need of the country than having the store of modern knowledge made available is the need to give the great majority of the population of Burma, those who live in villages, reading material of the simplest kind which will communicate ideas and information effectively so that desirable changes will be brought about in the villagers' way of life and in their standard of living. Owing to intensive work by the government, both in the field of primary education for children and in the field of literacy for adults through the work of the Mass Education Council, there is a growing need for large quantities of varied reading material in the rural areas. This material should serve not only to provide entertainment, but also and more fundamentally for providing guidance towards a better way of life for the rural masses. The problem is to reach this huge potential reading public effectively and methodically.

Accordingly, the BTS is embarking on a programme of providing reading material for the two kinds of reading audiences that are in greatest need of reading materials: (a) those whose reading ability is just above literacy, including those who have newly acquired it, this reading audience may be termed neo-literate; (b) those whose reading ability is higher than that of the first group,

1. Much of this aid has since been approved and given. [Ed.].

but whose reading habits are not too strongly formed. The society is accordingly preparing the two over-all series of materials mentioned briefly in the previous section: Series I, *Pyi-thu-Let-Swe* or 'People's Handbooks', consists of picture-story booklets containing 16-40 pages and is beamed at audience (a); Series II, the *Short Story Series*, will contain similar content emphasis as Series I, but will be beamed at the intermediate audience.

The latter series will actually have a very wide audience range, being of interest even to those with advanced reading ability. Two or three generations ago, little playlets in book form were very popular in Burma, especially in the rural areas. They were read aloud and enjoyed by the type of audience we now have in mind. It is hoped that the short stories in the second series will fill the vacuum left by the disappearance of these playlets, and will be as popular and acceptable. They differ in that our short stories will contain information and ideas which will be of immediate use or benefit to the reader. The first short story in this series has been written by the Hon. U Nu, and deals with the importance of pure water and the need for inoculation against epidemic diseases.

The reading materials in the *People's Handbook Series* and *Short Story Series* are grouped together as the Continuing Reading Materials Project, since the intention of the two series is to develop the reading habits, reading ability and the informatory material of the mass audience through provision of continuing series at each level of ability. In a way, the society is attempting to further the work of the Mass Education Council and other field agencies. Both series will deal with these six subjects, agriculture, health, practical economics, civics, general culture and recreation. These subjects were selected by the Educational Publications Study Group, which included representatives from fourteen government ministries and departments, besides BTS and Mass Education Council personnel. As the programme develops a visual aids section is anticipated, to produce teaching charts and posters co-ordinated with each booklet and to promote each series.

Present Staff and Organization

At present, the Continuing Reading Materials Project is being directed by the magazine editor, U Htin Gyi. Under him are two project editors who devote their full time to the *People's Handbook Series*. The project editors plan each booklet in co-operation with a consulting panel of representatives from government ministries and departments (i.e., health, co-operatives, mass education, agri-

culture, police, education, etc.), and in co-operation with the Publications Research Division of the society, which is studying the reading abilities, interests and habits of the rural audiences.

The consulting panel is made up of members of the Educational Publications Study Group, convened early in 1955, which originally suggested the following titles as a preliminary first list of needed booklets in the Continuing Reading Materials Project.

Health: infant care; care of handicapped children; personal hygiene; first aid; maternity; mothercraft; old age; environmental sanitation; the rural home; water; good food; temperance; betel chewing, smoking; mental health; everyday ills; contagious diseases (epidemics), cholera, smallpox, plague; malaria control; hydrophobia; snake bites.

Agriculture: rice quality and improvement; standardization of quality of crops; home crops (gardening); fertilizer; soil conservation; irrigation; improved implements; double cropping; self-sufficiency (for farmers in Burma); improved crops and methods; forest conservation; care of cattle; poultry farming (disease control); pest control (six important).

Civics: you and your country; village government; voting and use of ballot; Burmese history; village defence; your friend the policeman; fire (village and forest); village councils.

General Culture: biographies (a) religious leaders, (b) national life (including fighting men), (c) international; elements of Buddhism; history of pagodas; folk songs; nationals of Burma; Burmese artists and writers; festivals.

Economics: thrift and home economics; hobbies and handicrafts (cottage industries); village co-operatives (a) consumer, (b) producer, (c) multi-purpose.

Recreation: folk tales; indoor games; pets.

This list has been accepted as containing ample suggestions for the first booklets in the series.

The *Short Story Series*, treating subjects similar to those in the *People's Handbook Series*, is written by outside writers on contract, under the personal supervision of the project director, U Htin Gyi. Writers are given the specifications of the series, the subject which is to be treated, and other relevant information, by the project director. Manuscripts, when submitted, are edited to conform with standards of language, content, and so on, and are checked with the consulting panel for accuracy of technical information; ks.250 are paid for each acceptable short story used in the series.

Future Staffing and Organization

During the period 1956-59, the Continuing Reading Materials Project will develop until each of the sub-series of the *People's Handbook Series* will be staffed by a departmental editor who will specialize in preparing booklets in one subject area only; that is, there will be health, agriculture, economics, civics, general culture and recreation editors, each of whom will be responsible for formulating publishing schedules and establishing specialized consulting committees in his area.

The development programme tentatively provides for overseas training for each of these departmental editors.

The present (1956) budget permits the production of only 24 booklets of the *People's Handbook Series* in editions of 50,000 during the fiscal year from 1 October 1955 to 30 September 1956, but a larger budget will allow 40-50 booklets per year to be published in editions of 100,000 by 1959. The cost of each booklet is estimated at 25 pyas: 10 pyas for printing and 15 pyas for editorial costs, distribution, and so on. Accordingly, the booklets will be sold at approximately 25 pyas each.

The *Short Story Series* will develop with some caution, and according to the quality of the manuscripts obtained from outside writers. If quality is poor and style inconsistent, or if the series is not well accepted, it will be adapted accordingly. It may be that several full-time contributing editors will be employed by the Society not only to edit the manuscripts but to write them as well. Similarly, editors of the *People's Handbook Series* may occasionally handle the preparation of the more advanced *Short Story Series*.

Planning the Booklet Content

In planning the content of each booklet in both the *People's Handbook Series* and the *Short Story Series*, it is essential to choose information of real importance in the lives of the rural audience, and accurate in technical detail. The booklet must therefore be planned in close co-operation with the Consulting Panel of Experts.

These experts, as has been mentioned, are men active in different aspects of the government's Pyidawtha (Welfare State) programme. As such, they are asked to help formulate (a) an over-all policy of the Continuing Reading Materials Project by indicating priority needs in each area, and (b) the content of individual booklets by indicating the essential information under each specific topic that should be included in each booklet (in the case of the

Short Story Series, stories are checked with specialists *after* submission by outside authors). The society has experimented with a 'key-step' method of planning each publication as developed by Dr. Spaulding and the Educational Publications Study Group. When specialists are consulted about specific topics that should be treated, they are asked to fill out the following questionnaire (spacing compressed for convenience):

Key-Step Planning of an Educational Publication

1. What group of people needs to know this information (male, female, farmers, fishermen, labourers, rural, urban, general public)?
2. What do you want this group of people to learn?
3. What do you want this group of people to do?
 - (a) Why should they do it?
 - (b) When should they do it?
 - (c) How should they do it?
 - (d) What are the key steps they should take?
4. Where can a person who reads the booklet get help or advice?
5. Can you suggest a story plot or outline which could be used in presenting the above key points?
6. Can you give a bibliography on the topic you have outlined above?

The questionnaire, together with individual conferences, has been found to be most useful in getting specialists to clarify their thinking in terms of specific objectives.

Standards of Booklet Content, Style, Design

In planning the booklets of the Continuing Reading Materials Project, the society is following suggestions offered by others experienced in the field and by previous research that has been done on adult reading and communication, especially in countries with large percentages of poorly educated adults. For a brief survey of research which we have found applicable, see Chapter VIII, 'Research on Communication Through Printed Material'. For a description of the society's research plans, see page 199.

On the basis of the varied experience and research, we have established certain basic standards for the *People's Handbook Series*.

1. Story and narrative form of presentation will be preferred to advice, generalization, or theoretical discussion. In order to test

out this assumption, the Research Division is at present planning a village study using two experimental editions of a booklet on pure water. Both booklets have approximately the same format, with very little text on each of the 16 pages and a full-page illustration facing each text page. One booklet tells the story of respected villagers who get ill because of impure water, while the second booklet gives straight advice on obtaining or preparing pure water. Equivalent village areas will be 'saturated' with editions of each booklet, and a survey several days later will test the recipients to determine what was done with the booklet, what was remembered, what was done about the information it contained, etc. Comparison of the replies of those who received the story-type booklet with the replies of those who received the advice-type should help determine if there is any marked difference in community response to the two different types of presentation.

2. Each booklet will contain only a small amount of information—no more than two or three principal ideas. It has been found among similar audiences in other countries that the amount of information retained from any one piece of literature by adult beginning readers is inversely proportionate to the total number of ideas in the booklet.
3. Type size must be large—at least 18-point—and there must be considerable leading (space between lines). In Burmese, type size should probably be larger than for similar purposes in English, since the basic portion of the symbols is only one-third the size of the total point size, with ascending and descending modifying symbols occupying approximately the upper and lower thirds of the type face. Accordingly, the centre (basic) portion of, say, an 18-point Burmese type face will be smaller than 18-point lower-case English letters, which, in most type faces, limit each ascender and descender to about one-fifth of the space allotted to the letter.
4. Type faces are to be kept consistent and plain, even on the covers. No distorted, flowing, bloated, distended or extended faces will be allowed, although this has been the tendency on the covers of many books in Burmese. For beginners, consistent, traditional faces will be easier to read and will establish a habit of expecting the normal face used in most printing.
5. There will not be more than 40 pages in any one booklet, and no more than an average of four to six short sentences will appear on every other page, with facing pages consisting of illustrations. The booklets will be pocket size, designed to fit into the pocket of a Burmese jacket.

6. Illustrations, like the text, will be simple, direct and to the point, and will not contain objects or scenery that are inessential to the communication of the basic idea. Each illustration will clarify the main portion of the accompanying text and will thus serve not only to interest the reader but to communicate basic information as well.
7. The covers of the booklets will be in colour, and where colour is used in the inside of the book it will be used functionally; that is, one colour (plus black) will rarely be used in illustrations since research has shown this confuses the viewer, especially when such colour usage deviates from reality. When the budget only permits one-colour usage, such colour will be used to emphasize portions of the text and show distinction in illustration of processes, etc. Research studies are planned to test the relative effectiveness of full-colour booklets as compared to black and white.
8. Vocabulary should be limited to frequently used expressions, and research plans include field comprehension testing, vocabulary testing, and readability research, possibly leading to the establishment of a readability formula and readability scales.

Printing

Booklets are printed in the society's plant, housed in two large buildings. The equipment is described in a later section in connexion with the production of the *Sapay Beikman* magazine. During 1956-57, ks.800,000 of new machinery will be added, much of this to accommodate the additional load involved in the Continuing Reading Materials Project.

Related Activities

The activities of the Educational Publications Study Group have included the setting-up of a committee on acquisition and evaluation of educational publications. This committee is at present studying ways of assembling and evaluating all educational publications produced in Burma, with subsequent annotations in a quarterly newsletter.

The experimental 'Evaluation Form' devised by this committee appears in an appendix to this chapter. The form is used to evaluate publications on a numerical scale. Three committee members rate the publications, using the form, and each evaluation is averaged with the other two before final presentation to the entire committee.

Publishers are being asked to co-operate with the Study Group Acquisition and Evaluation Committee, and the Continuing Reading Materials Project director, U Htin Gyi, is co-operating closely with the committee in planning the *People's Handbook Series* and the *Short Story Series*. This committee can help guard against duplication of effort.

'SAPAY BEIKMAN' MAGAZINE

Policy and Programme

Before 1950, the only periodical publication of the Burma Translation Society was an eight-page affair sent free by the Distribution Division to members of the society. It contained news of the Burma Translation Society, announcements of the society's latest publications and occasionally literary articles. In the latter part of 1950, the Managing Council of the society decided to have a monthly magazine published by the society in place of this monthly bulletin. The council felt that although there were other magazines on the market, they catered more or less for sophisticated town dwellers. The society's magazine, it was decided, should meet the needs of the rural readers. It was to edify and educate the rural readers as well as to entertain them.

On the assumption that the magazine would be read by villagers having an education equal to third- or fourth-grade schooling, the language used in the magazine had to be simple and the presentation attractive. The magazine was considered a stepping stone to help the villager progress in his reading skill and ability to manipulate ideas until he could profit from standard books in science, arts, literature, agriculture, etc.

With these objectives in view, *Sapay Beikman* magazine started its career on 1 June 1951. It is published monthly in Burmese at a retail price of ks.2 per copy and sold at ks.16 per year (12 copies) for ordinary subscribers and ks.14 per year for members of the society. The society prints 21,000 copies per month. The Information Department of the Government of Burma buys 18,000 copies per month to be distributed free to schools, reading rooms, and Mass Education Centres in villages throughout Burma. Such distribution averages about one copy per village, since there are about 18,000 villages in the country. The magazine has a guaranteed profit because of this government purchase of 18,000 copies. Government and subscription sales provide approximately 95 per cent of total revenue; and about 5 per cent is provided by advertising. The society's Distribution Division hopes to step up public sales

through an expanded distribution programme (see section on distribution).

The magazine gives fundamental knowledge on health and sanitation and some idea of the progress of modern science. It seeks to inject civic consciousness into the minds of the readers and emphasizes the importance of both unity in one's country and friendliness with other countries. It supplies its readers with the background to current events and acquaints them with what is happening in various parts of the world.

Story ideas are entirely those of the contributing editors. The society maintains a reference library which forms the basis for article research, and the magazine section has an annotated file of British and American newspapers and magazines from which news is culled. Hand-outs, translated books and periodicals from various embassies are welcomed as idea material but are never used *per se*.

The Burma Translation Society has for several years had a Continuing Technical Terms Project which is, through panels of experts in all fields, rapidly standardizing Burmese technical vocabulary. Lists in each field are regularly published by the society and additions are published in the magazine as separate listings from time to time.

The magazine is under the charge of U Htin Gyi, who had his training at the University of Minnesota, U.S.A., and who has his Master's degree in journalism. His staff consists of ten contributing editors who are mostly graduates in science, economics or political science. Among the staff is a former free-lance writer and another with years of experience in local printing and publishing.

The printing department of the society prints and binds all editions of the magazine. This department is under an experienced technician, trained in Great Britain, and most of the sectional heads (press, block-making, hand-composition, monotype, book-binding, etc.) have also had training abroad.

The printing department has three Miehle flatbed printing machines capable of handling material measuring 30×40 inches, one Miehle flatbed two-colour machine which prints 30×40 inches, three Kelley flatbed machines which print 14×20 inches.

The department also has a Bostitch wire-stitching machine, a Smyth sewing machine, a Smyth case-making machine, a Brehmer gathering-stitching machine and a Baum folder. Composing is done both manually and by two Burmese monotype machines and three composition casters. There is a complete block-making

department. The machinery will be expanded under the society's development programme during the next three years.¹

Except for some difficulty in obtaining zinc sheets and chemicals because these must be paid for in foreign currency, there are no special problems in block-making (see sub-head 'An Experiment in Colour Printing', below). If there continues to be a shortage of foreign exchange, the paper and ink may also become difficult to obtain.

A separate department of the society, the Publications Research Division, intends to study reading interests and habits of villagers and to make readership surveys on the magazine. A preliminary study on a simple booklet in the Pyidawtha series shows considerable oral reading in village areas, and also considerable silent reading. A survey of selected mass education organizers has shown that the organizers rate the society's magazine among the top four preferred by villagers.

A first step has been taken to get to know the opinion of the readers as to magazine content. A reply-paid postcard is included with every copy of the magazine on which readers are invited to express their likes and dislikes of articles which appear in the magazine. Some readers appear to think the present size of the magazine ($9\frac{3}{4} \times 13\frac{3}{4}$ inches) too bulky to be handled conveniently. Some readers also want more inside use of 3-colour blocks (which are used on the cover). Encouraging notes of appreciation are received from school teachers and students who value the informational and educational subjects.

Although no research in Burmese has been made as yet on the effect on readability of length of sentences and paragraphs, nor any research on vocabulary frequency or basic word lists, contributing editors are instructed to use simple words, short sentences and short paragraphs.

How the Magazine is Planned

Editorial conferences are held twice a month to discuss and decide what should go into future issues. The principles laid down by the society are kept in mind, but there is considerable latitude in implementing the general directives of the council.

Each bi-monthly conference is an informal affair, usually around a pot of green tea, and every contributing editor makes his sugges-

1. The development programme for printing during 1956-57 calls for the addition of ks.821,082 of equipment, including two additional monotype Burmese keyboards, three monotype composition casters, two 2-colour 30×40-inch flatbed Miehle presses, two folding machines, and miscellaneous machines, casters, trimmers, offset machines, spiral binding apparatus, etc.

tions. One contributing editor may remember a piece of information relevant to the topic in discussion, another may relate his personal experience which has a bearing on the subject and still another may read an anecdote which can be used with the article that is to be written. These suggestions are noted down by the Contributing Editor who is assigned to work out the article. This working plan is adopted because it helps to induce co-operation among the editors and also eliminates the kind of duplication of articles which would ensue if the editors were asked to write 'anything that is suitable for the magazine'.

The contributing editors are instructed to make short notes of stories and articles which they read in the course of research on their monthly articles. These notes are made on cards (3 × 5 inches) and are filed under subject classification for use in writing future articles. Up to date we have about 10,000 cards and the number is growing.

Whenever an article in a magazine has been thus excerpted, the index card contains the title of the article or story, the periodical in which it appears, the author and page. Editors also initial the article they index so that the others will not re-index it unnecessarily.

As soon as an article is submitted by the contributing editor, the executive editor plans the art and layout of the article in collaboration with the contributing editor and artist. If any photographs are needed, the executive editor and the contributing editor instruct the photographer to take the pictures which will help make the written matter clear.

When blocks (cuts) and galley proofs of the articles are ready, the executive editor and the contributing editor work together on the make-up. The make-up sheets and edited galley proofs are then sent through the editor in charge of printing.

Experiment in Colour Printing

The magazine uses a thick tough paper for the cover. It is meant for villagers and hence rough handling is expected. The cover usually has two- to four-colour illustrations. The usual method in Burma of printing colours is to have blocks with the same basic object outlines but with different colours. They print well, provided the registration is perfect. In the course of printing 21,000 copies of our magazine, however, we have found that colour registration often misses. It looks like a third-dimensional picture viewed without polaroid glasses. In order to obviate this, the engraver is instructed to make one block for outlines of the picture and the other colour blocks without repetition of outlines. When

printed, there is no chance of aberration. Even if one or two of the colour blocks do not register perfectly, the one dark outline holds the shape of each portion of the illustration, and the slight off-registration is never noticed.

Selection of Editors

The magazine being almost entirely written by the staff, the editors selected must be able to fit their style into the established pattern. Applicants for contributing editorship first have the policy of the magazine explained to them. It is explained that the intended readers have an average educational background of the third or fourth grade. Local colour and a Burmese slant are essential.

After the applicants are briefed, they are asked to prepare a sample article of their own choosing. The executive editor and each applicant agree as to subject. The applicants are given about a week to search for their facts and source material. At the end of the week they submit tentative outlines of their articles, and discuss them with the executive editor. Only then do they actually write up their essays.

The applicants may use the index cards in the magazine department in preparing their articles. This resource file is necessary since there is as yet no complete reference library in Rangoon and therefore the use of such sources as *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, *International Index to Periodicals*, or the *Cumulative Book Index* is impossible. In essence, what we do is file regular copies of periodicals we have found useful and index these for our future use. Index cards also contain short notes of interesting facts and figures which appear in the local magazines, journals, yearbooks and newspapers. These periodicals and newspapers are bound in volumes and kept in the magazine library.

After the applicants finish their writing test, they are asked to translate into Burmese a short passage from English literature. The test is the same for all applicants; its object is to find out if the applicants have a working knowledge of English and a good command of Burmese. The quality of the work of candidates selected by this method has so far been exceptional.

DISTRIBUTION

The Burma Translation Society, although often working closely with the government, is a private non-profit educational society. Non-recurring capital expenditure has often been met by the

government through outright grants, but the society is expected to become increasingly self-supporting. Distribution until the present has been mostly through government channels. The Information and Education Departments purchase large quantities of most titles for distributing to schools, libraries and reading rooms throughout the Union of Burma. Although the society encourages government distribution, it cannot depend on it.

The number of people who can obtain books through schools and reading rooms is limited, and the society cannot and should not depend solely on government support, especially as government purchase may cease in lean years.

The only answer is for the society to step up its direct sales to the public. Until recently, our public sales have been limited since the distribution staff has been small, with no provision for sales campaigning or systematizing. If local booksellers wish to stock our books they must correspond with us or come to our offices and pay cash for the books that they want to sell. Very little encouragement has been offered booksellers, other than the standard discount.

As a part of the over-all 1956-59 developmental programme, the society is embarking on a greatly expanded distribution scheme which will make its books readily available semi-commercially to as many people in Burma as possible, in addition to the usual availability in schools and reading rooms.¹ The society realizes that to meet its educational aims and objectives its books must be readily available to all who would profit from them. Through government channels they are made available for those who frequent reading rooms and who can use school facilities. Through an expanded sales programme we wish to make publications available to all.

The prices on the publications cover cost of production only. Occasionally a book will be sold at a loss if the price which would cover production cost is prohibitive. The society firmly believes, however, that rather than seek subsidies so as to be able to distribute the publications free of charge, it is wiser to make a nominal charge for the publication. In this way, those who purchase the publications will attach more value to them than if they were given away for nothing.

It will be noted that the *People's Handbook Series* will sell at 25 pyas per copy. It is hoped that expanded semi-commercial

1. The society has no control over free distribution once the government takes possession of purchased publications. It is, however, planning studies which will uncover blocks, if any, in the government's distribution schemes, and will accordingly make appropriate recommendations.

distribution will greatly supplement copies that are distributed free through government programme facilities.

Present Staff and Programme

The society began implementation of the new sales and distribution programme in July 1955. Two new officers, under the distribution officer, have been appointed—an information officer and a distribution and sales officer. These two are working together in planning new sales programmes and the information and publicity to go with them.

Four travelling distribution agents have been engaged, whose function is to set up experimental 'sale-or-return' programmes in district areas. These agents visit towns and villages, interest local dealers in handling BTS books on a non-obligation basis, and make regular rounds visiting each dealer approximately once a month. The present budget does not permit the use of distribution vans to supply the local dealers, therefore the agents make use of public transportation facilities and notify Rangoon where to send the books. The distribution agents remain responsible for the books and collect for those sold when they make their rounds each month. An experimental payment system consists of sending the following month's stock 'V.P.P.' (C.O.D.), the charge collected by the postman being the amount due on the past month's sales. In this way the travelling agent handles no money and the local bookseller pays before receiving new stock.

A similar system is being experimented with in Rangoon. Here we have the advantage of a book-mobile which also sets up a retail shop in busy areas throughout the town.

Future Development

In addition to the four travelling agents now with the society, six more will be added, thus providing an agent for each of the country's ten administrative divisions. In those areas where road systems and security conditions make it possible to use such equipment, future development will include the purchase of publicity and distribution vans which the travelling agents will use to stock local booksellers and publicize the publications. These vans will not sell retail but will establish a sales point in each town or village and then centre publicity activities on getting the villagers acquainted with the fact that the BTS publications will be permanently available at that particular spot. Present plans indicate that seven to eight such vans will be put into service by 1960.

Other equipment to be put into use includes several hundred book-racks of various sizes to permit the society to lend suitable racks to participating booksellers. Some of these racks are to be imported from the United States in order to get them quickly and to help us judge the different sizes and styles that are available.

As this programme develops, new invoicing and accounting procedures will be called for, so as to keep track of the increased individual entries and cross references that will be necessary. In addition, since such a programme is new to Burma, there will no doubt be many pitfalls that are not immediately obvious to us. Therefore, the Distribution Division is planning to obtain a consultant experienced in such sale-or-return distribution—someone who has practical experience in the sale and promotion of small books such as ours. His task would be to develop invoice and inventory procedures that would facilitate the stocking and subsequent billing of our local booksellers.

The travelling agents will be trained in sales techniques and the distribution system. The use of the publicity distribution vans will be defined, accounting and inventory procedures developed, and routes established. Publicity materials, book-racks, etc., are to be planned to suit the needs of the local agents and booksellers that will use them.

Sales, publicity and distribution constitute a dynamic process. A programme cannot become successful, however, only through increased expenditure. The BTS feels it has devised a system which will permit the influence of the distribution staff to be multiplied many times through the recruitment of enthusiastic local agents who will sell BTS books the whole year round—even though the BTS agent may appear only once a month.

PUBLICATIONS RESEARCH DIVISION

General Background

The division owes its existence to the impetus given by the Educational Publications Study Group sponsored by the Burma Translation Society. From April 1955, the study group, with the zealous participation of education, information and publicity officers of 14 government ministries, met regularly at the society's premises to explore possible ways and means of studying and evaluating the effectiveness of the educational publications at present being produced in the country. The study group recommended the setting up of a Publications Research Division. The society accord-

ingly set up the Research Committee, which concurred with the study group recommendations.

Aims and Objectives of the Research Division

The purpose of the division is twofold: (a) to carry on evaluation studies which will give the society an idea of how effective its books are in communicating ideas to the various potential audiences, and (b) to carry on studies of a fundamental nature which will help all interested in communicating through the mass media in Burma to understand their task better.

Organization and Staff

At present the division has only a skeleton staff, designed to carry out a pilot-type exploration during the initial stages of its work, with the understanding that the programme will develop gradually in terms of scope of projects to be undertaken during the next three years. One disadvantage is that no provision is made for field staff and only limited provision for office staff needed for tabulation and analysis of results. Limitations in setting up the office without field staff have been realized by the council, but one of the members of the Research Committee, U Ba Wan of the Mass Education Council, offered the services of the mass education organizers in carrying on the field end of the research during the formative stages of the work.

During August and September, 1955, the Mass Education Council (MEC) and the Burma Translation Society co-operated in training 192 mass education organizers in field research techniques. The training took place at the MEC Centre at Chaw-dwingone and covered a total of 112 periods, of 40 minutes each; the periods were broken down approximately as follows:

Theory (30 per cent): lectures on orientation, communications research, interview techniques, public relations, Burmese vocabulary, and statistics.

Demonstrations and group discussion (20 per cent): demonstration of interview techniques and comprehension testing.

Practical participation—indoor (30 per cent): vocabulary frequency counts, interview techniques and group exercises.

Practical participation—field work (20 per cent): evaluation study of the BTS publication, *Our Resources*, in four sample villages.

The division owes much gratitude to outside lecturers for their voluntary assistance; the lecturers came from government de-

partments (education and census), university faculties, and the Mass Education Centre.

Future Plans and Development of Research Work

The Research Division concentrates on the questions: *Who?*, says *What?*, to *Whom?*, through what *Channels?*, and with what *Effect?*

How far does the factor of 'who' affect the society's programme? For instance, do the various audience levels in Burma accept or reject printed material according to author or publisher?

The 'what' is the content of the communication. In this respect the division must study the content of the society's publications in terms of the reading audience—for instance, whether a book written for a particular level will be understandable by the intended audience, whether the content is of a nature to interest that audience, and so on.

The 'to whom' is the audience. The division will have to know more about the reading interests and abilities of the various potential audiences in Burma with a view to preparing more effective reading materials. This readability research will certainly involve: (a) comprehensive study of the structure of the Burmese language in order to make generalizations as to the factors which cause reading difficulty in Burmese; (b) vocabulary research in order to ascertain the most frequently used words in Burmese, for all audience levels; (c) field research, attempting through comprehension testing and readership surveys to determine the reading abilities and interests of the various potential audiences.

The 'channel' as concerns the society is mainly the printed material. In this respect the division will have to study more effective methods regarding presentation and distribution. The methods used by the government in distributing BTS publications will be studied with a view to making recommendations as to more effective use of the society's materials. Studies may also attempt to determine the best channels for getting across different types of information. The effectiveness of individual publications of the society will be studied in terms of the following factors: (a) Do the publications get to the proper audience (are they available)? (b) Do they interest the intended audience? (c) Are they read by the intended audience? (d) Are they understood by the audience? (e) Is the information believed? (f) Does the information in some way change the audience or does the audience in some way act upon it?

Research Bulletin

A research bulletin will be published by the division in the near future (1956), giving summaries of research work being done by the society and it will also include articles of a general nature concerning communication research and related fields. Articles are expected from specialists in Burma in education, psychology, sociology, anthropology, applied linguistics and related fields. Appropriate articles from foreign journals will be reproduced.

The bulletin will be distributed free at first and it will be sent automatically to government departments putting out educational, informational and/or periodical literature for public consumption, to the editorial staff, council, and certain committee members of the society, and to other interested individuals (private publishers, university departments, and so on) who request it.

Projects to Date

Exploratory study of reading habits, abilities and preferences of Burmese villagers. A survey of a sample of experienced mass education organizers was undertaken in early 1955 to ascertain their opinions as to the types of reading materials needed in village work, the characteristics of reading material best liked by villagers, and the figures on books borrowed most and least frequently from village libraries and reading rooms. Of some 800 organizers in the field at that time, 86 of the more experienced were chosen, in co-operation with Mass Education Council administrators in Rangoon, for the purpose of the survey. These 86 were stationed throughout Burma, and represented approximately 10 per cent of the organizers in the field at the time. They worked in villages with a total population of 140,000 people. The most valid results of the survey are as follows:

1. The mass education organizers indicated overwhelmingly that they need simple reading materials on practical subjects such as agriculture, health, civics, home economics, and so on, to help them attain the aims and objectives of their local programme.
2. Organizers felt, however, that literate villagers are at present interested mostly in recreational reading, popular commercial periodicals, and religious literature.
3. According to the 71 of the 86 organizers who have libraries or reading rooms in their villages, library usage was limited. Most libraries and reading rooms report less than 100 books borrowed by any one of three age-groups (10-18; 19-40; 40 and above) during the year preceding the survey.

4. Loan figures of the 71 village libraries reporting showed that the most popular books in the libraries, on the average, were the following: recreational reading, 3 books; how-to-do-it and self-help type, 2 books (*How to Win Friends and Influence People* and *Guide for Youths*, on health, conduct, games, etc.); religious literature, 3 books; non-fiction of an adventurous nature, 2 books (*Heroic Deeds* and *Adventure*); assorted non-fiction of analytical rather than adventurous nature, 5 books (*UN Organization*; *Burmese Economic Life*; *Atom Story*; and so on).
5. Of magazines and periodicals available, commercial magazines were preferred to Mass Education Council and Burma Translation Society magazines, except by the older age-groups.
6. It was concluded, from the above results, that, although there is a need for practical information on matters of everyday significance in the lives of villagers, little material of this kind was to hand. Of the publications available, recreational, self-help, and religious literature was preferred by *villagers who frequent the reading rooms*.
7. Similarly, the survey showed that the villagers were not interested in purely academic knowledge and that non-fiction must be related to everyday living or be adventurous in nature, i.e., good recreational reading. Accordingly, BTS policy in increasing the quantity of simple, highly illustrated materials on matters of everyday concern to the villager seems to be well founded. These were asked for by the organizers as needed in carrying out their local programme aims and objectives.
8. The BTS policy of couching the practical information in the new series for rural readers in story form may prove to be successful in the light of village preferences for story-type recreational materials.

A pilot investigation of the communication potential of Pyidawtha booklets. This study was undertaken in five villages within ten miles of Rangoon, all near the Mass Education Training Centre at Chaw-dwngone. Of 192 mass education trainees taking special training in research methods and interviewing during August 1955, 118 participated in this project.

It was assumed that the communication potential of simple, interesting reading materials could be ascertained by 'saturating' a village with a booklet, returning four days later to inquire what had been done with it, what had been remembered, and so on.

The booklet chosen for the project was *Resources of Burma*, one of the Pyidawtha (Welfare State) series of the Burma Translation Society; it is printed in large type (16 point) and has many

illustrations (at least 40 per cent of total space). It was 26 pages in length and is one of a series booklets designed to present information in the simplest possible terms for school children and for the general public.

In the five villages, 118 families were given booklets and subsequently interviewed. The majority of the respondents were in the 0-4 years of education category, and most of them worked in an unskilled or semi-skilled capacity in Rangoon. Thus, the test group was undoubtedly somewhat unrepresentative of the more isolated rural areas. The following conclusions were drawn:

1. Simple, readable, highly illustrated booklets, such as the test booklet, *Resources of Burma*, create considerable interest when made available to the adult villager, even with little or no education. This booklet, distributed free, was kept and read by the majority of those receiving it, mostly people with education limited to a few standards of vernacular school or less.
2. Potential readership of such booklets is more than the actual number of people receiving the booklet. In at least 16 per cent of the households, the booklet was read to one or more persons by someone in the family. In a number of other instances, the booklet was lent to others within the household or to friends.
3. Sixty-five per cent of those who read the booklet remembered accurately the title. Many who did not remember the title remembered something of the content.
4. The majority of respondents were able to recall only from 10 to 30 per cent of the content of the booklet, as estimated by comparing responses with the 10 major ideas as seen by the editor of the series. This substantiates other studies which show that the amount of specific information remembered is inversely proportional to the total number of ideas in the material. (The above suggests that the purpose of the material must be considered carefully before it is published, since booklets meant for general reading will usually not be referred to after the first reading, as are reference books. There are certain variable factors, but the tested value of such material may be considered to consist of those ideas which are retained after one reading.)
5. Illiterates are often influenced by printed materials in that other members of the household may read the material to them. The number of illiterates in the sample represented in this study was too limited to make further definite conclusions, and more study is suggested.
6. There seems to be no measurable variation in the booklet-use and recall-response figures obtained from literates of varying degrees of formal education. Those literates with no formal

schooling showed, in general, as much interest in the booklet and made nearly as good scores on the recall testing as did those literates with up to four and even more years of formal schooling. This may mean that those with formal schooling have not continued to develop their reading habits after leaving school, and have in fact done little reading—often because of scarcity of reading materials.

Future studies will include both descriptive surveys (what are people actually reading now in villages?) and experimental research (what factors of language usage make for readable Burmese prose?; how does presentation, i.e., story form, straight advice, etc., affect readership?). These studies will be made in more isolated villages areas in order that they may be more representative of the total rural reading audience.

Vocabulary frequency count. Several score voluntary workers, some of them mass education personnel, assisted over a several-month period in 1955 in attempts to assemble vocabulary frequency data; unfortunately all these attempts were fruitless. Burmese is an inflexional language, and when asked to note words used in a passage, no two tabulators agreed. Similarly when they were asked to note 'sense units' there was disagreement. The tabulation of appearance of syllables offers no trouble, but is of little value since we need the vocabulary count to help us choose the most frequently used meaningful symbols, not meaningless syllables. Further experimentation may lead to an adequate definition of 'lexical units' (root words) which may make it possible to obtain consistent results from all tabulators.

An investigation of the effect on readership of two styles of presentation of information of a practical nature. This study is in co-operation with the Continuing Reading Materials Project previously described on pages 183-90. In the planning stage at the time of writing this study will involve distributing among comparable rural audiences two editions of a *People's Handbook Series* booklet on pure water—one booklet using the straight-advice presentation, the other the story-type presentation. Otherwise, both books use similar format. The booklets have been printed and testing will take place in the near future.

Audience surveys at the BTS Cultural Shows. Although the 'Cultural Shows' are not directly related to the society's book production, the Research Division has been asked to survey the audience at representative week-end performances to discover the type of

person who attends. If mainly neighbourhood people or university students or other special interest groups attend, the society would feel that the performances were not of general enough interest.

Three surveys have been carried out of three public lectures, two by Dr. Htin Aung, Rector of Rangoon University, and one by U Gon Ban. Results indicate that, of approximately 1,000 people surveyed, the lectures appeal largely to university students and teachers, and to only a small percentage of the general public.

Plans include surveying audiences at more popular dramatic presentations and performances of Burmese dancing.

Development programme. The Research Division will receive impetus during the society's three-year development programme (1956-59). The budget, including possible Ford Foundation support, provides for increased permanent staff, temporary staff and other expenses of proposed research studies, overseas training of selected research division staff, equipment such as jeeps and computational and filing equipment, and consultant services that will be needed by the division. The proposed Research Division budget during the three-year development programme totals over ks.700,000. Total budget for the division will be continued at around ks.50,000 yearly after the conclusion of the development programme.

EVALUATION AND ANNOTATION PROCEDURE

*General Procedure*

All publications submitted for listing in the Burma Translation Society Research Division's quarterly bulletin must be evaluated by the Educational Publications Study Group, using the 'Evaluation and Annotation Sheet' (see below). The evaluation sheet consists of three parts: (a) data to be supplied by the publisher, (b) physical data, and (c) committee evaluation.

When a book is received for evaluation, the title should be written in Part I, which should then be sent to the publisher for completion. When returned, Part II is then completed by the study group secretary, who makes three copies of the evaluation sheet, filling in the information contained in Parts I and II only.

These three copies are then given to three study group members (one copy per member), each of whom evaluates the publication as outlined in Part III. Part III requires numerical grading of various aspects of the publication: section A, format and make-up; section B, illustrations; section C, language; section D, presentation and content.

The three members must work independently, and if only one copy of the book is available, it must be passed on to each in turn. When the book is passed to the next evaluator, the first evaluator's rating is returned to the secretary.

Rating the Book (Part III of the evaluation sheet)

Committee evaluators are asked to use judgement in applying Part III questions on format and design, illustrations, language and content. When a question does not apply *because of the nature of the material*, full credit should be given. For instance, if a bulletin does not describe processes which could be clarified by the use of illustrations (section B, point 5), then full credit should be given under that question ('Are verbal discussions of processes clarified by illustrations?'), even though such illustrations do not appear.

Usually, however, the evaluator should consider the extent to which the publication meets the standard suggested, and a number rating, based on the total allowed for each standard, should be given. For instance, in section A, question 1, if a publication for rural readers uses 6-point type with no space between the lines, it might receive only one or two points

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

out of ten allowed for that question ("Type size large enough for legible reading by intended audience"). The one or two points allowed would indicate that the type size was *not* considered appropriate, and the number '2' would be entered in the square at the left of the question. A rating of six or eight would indicate more acceptable type size, but still not ideal.

Evaluation Summary

After the three committee members have submitted their ratings to the secretary, he summarizes and averages the three sets of scores on the summary evaluation forms. The three scores for each section are noted on the summary evaluation sheet, and averaged by the secretary. For instance, if one evaluator gives section I, question 1 a rating of 3, the second evaluator 4, the third 2, then the numbers 3, 4 and 2 will be written on the first line of section A of the evaluation summary.

The secretary will total and average all scores as suggested on the summary sheets.

Committee Discussion

The Evaluation and Annotation Committee will meet to discuss the summary evaluation of each publication. At this meeting, the secretary will report the following information: (a) average ratings of the three evaluators for each question of each section of the evaluation sheet; (b) an indication of any great disagreement on any question between the three persons who have evaluated the publication; (c) average total ratings for each of the four sections; (d) average total of all sections (the over-all rating of the publication).

As this information is discussed, the comments of the Committee are noted by the secretary on the summary sheets. On the basis of these comments, which should summarize committee feeling on each aspect of the publication, the final annotation is made. This annotation will be published in the quarterly bulletin.

EVALUATION AND ANNOTATION SHEET Annotated Bibliographical Reference Service Educational Publications Study Group Burma Translation Society

I. Data to be Supplied by Publisher

1. Title of book
2. Author(s)
3. Date of publication
4. Number of copies printed
5. Date ready for distribution
6. Date actually distributed
7. Number distributed to date (if any)

8. How distributed (commercially, through government channels, etc.)
 9. Balance on hand
 10. For what kind of reading audience intended (indicate geographical location, occupation, and education of average intended reader)
 11. Purpose of publication
 12. Cost
 13. Name of printers
 14. Number of editions
 15. Difficulties encountered in 'task of production'
- Date: Submitted by (print name)
 Signature
 Number

II. Physical Data

1. Size in inches . . x . .
2. No. of pages
3. Binding: paper
 hard cover
 other
4. Type point size in major portion of text
5. Percentage of page space devoted to illustrations
6. Number of colours, including black: on cover
 in illustrations
 in text
7. Introduction If so, by whom
8. Preface If so, by whom
8. Table of contents
10. Index

III. Committee Evaluation

A. Format and Make-up (75 points)

1. ☐ (10 points) Type size large enough for legible reading by intended audience.
2. ☐ (5 points) Columns of width which makes for easy reading.
3. ☐ (10 points) Favourable over-all impression of arrangement of text, margins, illustrations, etc.
4. ☐ (10 points) Material not cluttered or crowded.
5. ☐ (5 points) Use of colour in emphasizing portions of text.
6. ☐ (10 points) Use of sub-heads, boxes, special type, etc.
7. ☐ (5 points) Paper quality for intended purpose.
8. ☐ (10 points) Printing quality.
9. ☐ (5 points) Binding attractive and durable.
10. ☐ (5 points) Size acceptable for intended use.

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

B. Illustrations (75 points)

1. ☐ (5 points) Cover effectively illustrated and title interesting.
2. ☐ (15 points) Good illustrations in sufficient quantity in content.
3. ☐ (10 points) Are illustrations grasped at a glance?
4. ☐ (10 points) Do illustrations clarify the written material?
5. ☐ (5 points) Are verbal discussions of processes clarified by illustrations?
6. ☐ (5 points) Do illustrations have a human touch?
7. ☐ (10 points) Are illustrations uncluttered?
8. ☐ (5 points) Are characters in illustrations familiar or likeable?
9. ☐ (5 points) Are maps and diagrams used where applicable?
10. ☐ (5 points) Is colour used realistically in illustrations?

C. Language (50 points)

1. ☐ (10 points) Familiar words or sense units used (no Pali and literary expressions).
2. ☐ (10 points) Sentences short and direct.
3. ☐ (10 points) Paragraphs short, on the average.
4. ☐ (10 points) Technical words eliminated or made clear by explanations or context.
5. ☐ (10 points) Language, including both words and expressions, familiar and comfortable when read by intended audience.

D. Presentation and Content (100 points)

1. ☐ (5 points) Introductory material vital and interesting.
2. ☐ (10 points) Body organized logically, with clear-cut development of the idea.
3. ☐ (10 points) Is there immediate connexion with life pattern of intended reader?
4. ☐ (5 points) Is it timely, but not dated?
5. ☐ (5 points) If statistics are used, is this justifiable?
6. ☐ (10 points) Is it clear what each section of the material wants the reader to learn and to do?
7. ☐ (10 points) Is content not only clear, but motivational (that is, does it move to action)?
8. ☐ (5 points) Is definite action suggested, e.g., getting vaccinated, consulting the Public Health Assistant, purchasing good rice seed?
9. ☐ (5 points) Are programmes or objectives of other groups interested in the same subject mentioned?
10. ☐ (5 points) Is interest maintained consistently throughout body?
11. ☐ (10 points) Are summaries used at appropriate points throughout the material (concise statements, enumeration, cartoon, chart, picture, repetition in familiar descriptive terms, etc)?
12. ☐ (5 points) Is a popular symbol or slogan used, and if so, repeatedly and effectively?

13. ☐ (5 points) Are there going to be more materials on the same subject? If so, is this mentioned?
14. ☐ (5 points) Is it mentioned where reader can get more information (reading lists, addresses of government units, etc.)?
15. ☐ (5 points) Is only that information which is important to the reader presented?

SUMMARY AND NOTES

By Dr. Rupert East

As the Burma Translation Society is a comparatively large scale organization of a quasi-national character, working under a single control, and containing most of the branches of literature production within its own framework, its experience and problems may be of special interest if the formation of a single large central organization, or a number of self-contained organizations, comes under discussion. A few points, suggested by reading the report, are therefore put forward for consideration.

The first is the important question of administration and control. The Burma Translation Society is defined in the report as 'a private non-profit educational society'. As, however, the managing council contains a large proportion of high ranking government office holders, headed by the Prime Minister, and as the society is to a considerable extent dependent on government funds, either in the form of direct capital grants, or in the form of substantial 'hidden assets' (for example, the privilege of free postage, and the great advantage of being able to sell the majority of its publications in bulk to the government at a price which ensures its financial security), it is presumably subject to some government control, at least in all matters of general policy.

In any national organization of this kind, which concerns so many government departments and so many aspects of government policy, it is natural that the government should have a large say in supervising its affairs and deciding on its programme. On the other hand, as it is a basic principle of adult education to encourage initiative in the people themselves, it may be thought advisable to disguise the official motive behind the literature, as far as possible. Since it undoubtedly bears the stamp of authority and comes through official channels, it may be difficult for the ordinary villager to regard the material as other than an official instruction, especially as nature and tradition prompt him to make no change in his inherited way of life until he is ordered to do so. The ultimate aim is that he should appreciate the literature, and the advice, information and entertainment contained in it, not because this is prescribed by authority but because he understands its value, and that he should act on it for this reason. So eventually he will come to need the literature, look upon it as his own, and possibly, specially in the case of the periodicals, contribute to its content.

While, therefore, the ultimate responsibility and control of policy must probably remain, at any rate for some time, in the hands of the governments which sponsor and partly finance the scheme, is it possible to have

an organization which not only is independent in deciding its programme and managing its own affairs, but is seen to be so by the ordinary man? That is, an institution not directly associated in his mind with his rulers, but something in which he has a personal interest and which relies, in however small a way, on his support. One cannot, of course, say from the report how far the society has achieved this object, or if indeed it wishes to do so.

If this end is itself considered to be a desirable one, there are various ways of attaining it that might be considered. For example:

1. To place the control in the hands of a council of prominent citizens from the areas concerned, but to avoid overweighting it with government members.
2. To draw up a charter of general principles for the guidance of the managing and production staff, leaving the implementation of these principles in their hands.
3. To organize sales and distribution, and the collection of material, as far as possible independently of official channels.
4. To set up consultative committees at the lowest level, to enlist the interest and active participation of the people in the villages.
5. To encourage the publication of letters and opinions from the ordinary reader in periodical literature.
6. To utilize every legitimate source of revenue and saving in order to achieve economic independence; for example, an efficient advertising and sales organization, the acceptance of suitable advertisements, an economically run printing press, and the minimum administrative and secretarial staff.

There is, however, a danger in placing too much emphasis on the commercial aspect. It seems essential that the organization should have a sufficient financial backing to relieve it of the absolute necessity of being self-supporting. Otherwise commercial considerations may obscure its educational purpose.

Finance and Sales

These are closely bound up with the last question. The society has accepted the principle that its publications should be sold, even at a nominal price, rather than distributed free, and is doing its best to increase sales independently of government distribution. But where a commodity is given away in large quantities, there is an obvious difficulty in obtaining a bona fide sale for the remainder, especially among the poorer classes of the community, who have been used to getting it for nothing. Moreover, these are the people in whom it is particularly desired to implant the habit of buying their literature. For example, in the case of the *Sepay Beikman* magazine, out of a total circulation of 21,000, the government buys 18,000 copies for free distribution.

Another problem is the present high cost of printing. However economical the production, and however large the run (very big editions are not usually possible with this type of literature), it is almost impossible to sell at a price within the resources of the people for whom it is intended

without a substantial subsidy. This means that they are bound to get a false idea of the actual value of the books they buy, and to be disillusioned later when they come to need non-subsidized commercial literature. But this will probably be considered a lesser of two evils.

Most governments and other benevolent institutions baulk at the problem of selling literature (or anything else), not because they are opposed to the principle, but because they are not adapted by their organization, traditions, or temperament to engage in this type of activity. It is much easier to buy the literature in bulk and give it away. But there is no doubt that, generally speaking, the ordinary man reads and values the book or periodical he has bought more than the one which he has obtained for nothing, and that the literature cannot really be judged successful until the people are prepared to make some sacrifice to obtain it. For this reason, it seems worth considering whether the admitted difficulties in the way of building up a genuine selling organization can be overcome.

*

An addition to the foregoing notes by Dr. East needs to be made. The January 1959 newsletter of the Burma Translation Society stated that the society's annual income had reached one million dollars and that 80 per cent of this total was coming from sales to the general public through book dealers. In 1955-56, 80 per cent of the society's income had come from bulk sales to the Government. [Ed.]

CHAPTER VII

THE LATIN AMERICAN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION PRESS¹

This case study gives an example of what can be achieved by an organization with a clear objective, a wide language area (in this case the whole of Latin America) and, apparently, ample funds.

The question raised by Dr. East in his notes given at the end of the chapter, as to whether in fact every booklet is equally suitable for each community in the area, can only be answered from local knowledge, but the experience of most literature workers is that attempts to make elementary literature universally acceptable may end in the product not being fully acceptable anywhere. C.G.R.

PURPOSES AND ORGANIZATION

Background

The Latin American Fundamental Education Press² was established in accordance with an Agreement drawn up between the Organization of American States (OAS) and Unesco in June 1950. This was modified by a subsequent Agreement which came into effect in October 1954.

According to the terms of the new Agreement, the functions of the press are to:

Produce and distribute fundamental education materials for Latin America, giving particular attention to the experimental work carried out at Crefal.³

Collect, analyse, and classify materials on fundamental education received from the American nations.

Organize courses in production for students from Crefal, or from other similar institutions in Latin America.

1. By GUILLERMO NANNETTI, Director, Division of Education, Pan-American Union.

2. Also referred to below as 'the press'.

3. Centro Regional de la Educacion Fundamental para la America Latina, a fundamental education training centre maintained by Unesco, OAS, and the Mexican Government.

Provide technical information to governments and to organizations interested in the production of fundamental education material.

The Joint Advisory Committee

The Agreement provides for a Joint Advisory Committee, composed of representatives of OAS and of Unesco 'to consider and stimulate fundamental education in Latin America and to co-ordinate the plans and programmes of the two organizations in this field'. 'The Joint Advisory Committee shall give special attention to the operation of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press', and 'shall also examine the draft programme and budgets . . . and shall transmit its comments and suggestions to Unesco and the OAS'.

Organization and Duties of the Staff

At present the press operates with the following staff: a director; an editor; an assistant editor; a graphic arts expert; an illustrator; a secretary. In addition, there are technical advisory committees for education, health, agriculture, and economic and social affairs.

The duties of the director are to: determine the plan for the production of fundamental education materials, in accordance with the recommendations of the Joint Advisory Committee; produce, publish, and distribute fundamental education materials; supervise the staff of the press; make the final selection of subjects and review and approve the texts and illustrations; convoke the technical committees; maintain public relations between the press and international organizations, institutions interested in the utilization of the materials, other offices of the Pan-American Union, and inter-American specialized organizations; promote the establishment of, and to disseminate information on, fundamental education libraries in Latin America.

The duties of the editor are to: maintain relations with the Section of Educational Interchange of the Division of Education, OAS, for the purpose of collecting and classifying the fundamental education materials; prepare the publications selected by the director of the press and review the materials in their final form; see that the editorial work of the Press is performed satisfactorily; prepare the final texts; plan the illustrations, which are subject to his approval, with the graphic arts expert; serve as adviser to the director of the press, keeping him informed on the progress of the work of the section, on technical matters, and on problems that require immediate attention; see that records are kept of the

materials that are published and distributed; supervise the staff of the office.

The duties of the graphic arts specialist are to: decide upon the number and type of illustrations, in accordance with instructions from the editor and the content and reading level of the texts; plan, in consultation with the printing division, the typography and layout of the materials; produce illustrated charts; produce filmstrips and other graphic materials; prepare exhibitions of fundamental education materials; prepare and carry out tests to determine the types of illustrations most suitable from the informational point of view for both beginning readers and illiterates; study the relationship between the illustrations and the text in booklets, pamphlets, charts and other materials used both for the teaching of reading and as a means of encouraging supplementary reading; study the types of visual aids that can best contribute to the work of fundamental education.

The duties of the illustrator are to: prepare illustrations for booklets, charts, filmstrips, and other visual materials; check and correct the texts and drawings to be reproduced by the offset process.

The duties of the assistant editor are to: collaborate with the editor in the preparation of the fundamental education materials; draft the material selected by the editor; prepare informational material, whether provided by the technical committees or based on data found in the Permanent Exhibition Library of Textbooks; prepare bibliographies and collect fundamental education materials in Spanish and English.

The duties of the secretary of the press are to: maintain the Permanent Exhibition Library of Textbooks, organized by the Section of Educational Interchange of the Division of Education; carry out general secretarial tasks.

In its initial phase, the press contracted for the services of a specialist in the production of materials, whose duties were to: study the vocabulary best suited to the production of the materials; ascertain the level of the vocabulary used in the various materials, from the point of view of its adaptability to the objectives sought and to the levels of maturity and understanding of the future readers; test the materials in different regions of Latin America; plan, with the director, editor, and graphic arts specialist, the illustrations and visual aids that are best suited to fundamental education materials.

Work Relations with the Pan-American Union

The press maintains work relations with the majority of the offices

and services of the Pan-American Union. These relations may be classified as technical and administrative.

Technical relations. These are maintained with specialized offices and services responsible for conducting research into the problems of Latin America and for contributing to their solution. In order to formalize these relations, the press has set up four technical advisory committees; a Committee on Health, comprising doctors and specialists from the Pan-American Sanitary Bureau and the Pan-American Union; a Committee on Education, comprising Pan-American Union specialists; a Committee on Agriculture, comprising Pan-American Union specialists; a Committee on Economic and Social Affairs, comprising specialists from the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the Pan-American Union.

The co-operation resulting from these technical relations redounds to the mutual benefit of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press and of the offices and organizations represented on the committees. These offices and organizations have for some time been carrying out research projects relating to the multiple problems of Latin America. For example, the Pan-American Sanitary Bureau has been working for more than sixty years in the field of health and sanitation. The same may be said of several of the technical offices of the Pan-American Union in other fields of activity. At the same time, these offices and organizations are developing activities in their respective fields in conjunction with national agencies and services of each of the Latin American nations.

The technical advisory committees provide valuable co-operation by their participation in:

Selecting subjects for the reading materials, since the committees represent bodies that have conducted research in the related fields of specialization and are attending to the needs and aspirations of the Latin American peoples in those fields.

Supplying the technical data corresponding to each subject, since the bodies represented must reach the people and since they are in a position to judge the minimum of technical information necessary to make effective the knowledge imparted by the reading materials.

Reviewing the text, to check the accuracy of the information presented from the technical point of view.

Reviewing the illustrations from the point of view of technical interpretation.

Gathering information about the agencies, groups or individuals that might be interested in utilizing the booklets, since the organizations or offices represented on the committees maintain

contact with the national authorities and specialists in their own fields.

Utilizing the materials in those cases in which the organizations or services are carrying out their activities within the Latin American nations.

Administrative relations. The press has administrative relations with the Pan-American Union as regards: (a) fiscal services, which are provided by the Fiscal Division of the Department of Administrative Services; (b) distribution services, provided by the Division of Publications and Distribution; (c) printing services, provided by the Divisions of Printing and of Duplicating; (d) publishing services, that is, estimates of cost, etc., provided by the Division of Printing.

Training of Personnel

The press has not developed a formal programme for the training of personnel in the production of fundamental education materials, but it frequently receives visitors who are engaged in activities related to the preparation of such materials and also provides them with information on the aspects of the production of the materials in which they may be interested. The press maintains this service without any pretence of conducting an organized course. Nevertheless, it provides an opportunity to those interested to study the printing and illustrating processes and to benefit from the experience gained with regard to vocabulary, editing, format, composition, typography, and other technical aspects of production.

Official and Private Printings

In addition, the publications of the press have encouraged the various governments and institutions to produce similar materials. Governments and private institutions have also reprinted the materials, have printed adaptations of them, or have had them reproduced in publications for popular education.

EDITORIAL POLICY

Publication Programme

The publications programme of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press is inspired by the Charter of the Organization of American States—especially its social and cultural precepts—

and by the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man. It is also founded on the recommendations of the inter-American conferences and seminars.

The principal objective of the press is to contribute to the fight against illiteracy and to the improvement of the living standards of the Latin American peoples. In order to attain this end the press promotes the establishment of fundamental education libraries. These are libraries for the people, centres for the dissemination of useful learning through reading, and centres of group co-operation for the improvement of the community. In this manner, the Organization of American States seeks to incorporate the people into the fulfilment of a common mission which is 'to offer to man a land of liberty, and a favourable environment for the development of his personality and the realization of his just aspirations', as stated by the Charter of the Organization of American States.

To fulfil these objectives, a concentrated programme of action in fundamental education is required—one that contributes to the development of an awareness of the mission of the Americas and of the aspirations to cultural and social progress proclaimed by the Charter. Along with this awareness of its aims, fundamental education seeks to impart knowledge and skills that can help in the achievement of a standard of living in accordance with the principles of human dignity honoured in the Charter. Consequently, in the selection of subjects for its publications, the press is guided by the objectives of fundamental education. The press is preparing a series of materials for each of the following: (a) beginning reading for adults; (b) basic knowledge and skills, that is those subjects taught in the elementary schools—language arts, mathematics, social and natural sciences; (c) civics; (d) health; (e) economic and social affairs; (f) agriculture and labour; (g) leisure reading.

Relationship to the Programme of the Pan-American Union

The selection of subjects, within the fields listed above, is made with the assistance of the technical advisory committees, whose work is described in another section of this report. The assistance given by these committees in the selection of the subjects links the work of the press with the over-all programme of the Pan-American Union and of the inter-American specialized organizations. Their co-operation also enables the press to benefit from the research conducted by specialized offices and institutions, whose activities are related to various aspects of fundamental education. The co-operation of the advisory committees is not limited to the selection

of subjects but also includes advice as to the presentation and content of the materials.

By this procedure, the experts of the Pan-American Union services are brought into the fundamental education campaigns, since they (the doctors, nurses, agriculturists, social workers, anthropologists, and ethnologists, co-operative and agricultural extension workers) need these reading materials and audio-visual aids to carry out their work.

A Bridge between the Technician and the People

In the development of the programme of the Organization of American States, specialists in widely divergent disciplines are taking part—from statesmen who, in the council of the organization, seek to stimulate hemispheric understanding and solidarity, to technicians in the social and natural sciences who are concentrating on research into the problems of the Americas, and on disseminating knowledge for the improvement of living conditions.

The many-sided message of the Organization of American States must reach the people. Obstacles to the spreading of this message among the people are illiteracy and a limited ability to read—weaknesses that affect great masses of the people of the Americas. The Latin American Fundamental Education Press should aid in imparting the reading technique to the people. To do so, the press is preparing materials intended for the teaching of reading, as well as simple, easily understood booklets which may contribute to the dissemination of useful knowledge and to the formation of the reading habit.

The importance of this work of the press may be measured by the extent of illiteracy and semi-literacy in Latin America. It has been estimated that in 1950 there were 45 million illiterate adults on the American continent. A person was classified as illiterate if he was unable to read and write a simple message.

Therefore, the population of Latin America is divided into a zone of shadow and one of light: illiterates, and persons able to read. As has been said above, this division is determined by 'the ability or inability to read a simple message'. Nevertheless, to appreciate the effectiveness of reading as a cultural instrument this division must not be too strict. There are intermediate, twilight zones, represented by those who, although classified by the censuses as able to read, have received only two or three years of elementary schooling. Most frequently such persons live in underdeveloped communities which provide few stimuli or facilities for reading. With the exception of the self-taught, the ability to under-

stand reading material is very limited among those who live under these conditions. Statistics show that in Latin America the vast majority of the people have not received an education beyond that offered during the first three years of the elementary school. Indeed, the proportion of those who leave school after only one year is a large one and there is a sharp drop in school attendance in the following grades. Campaigns of popular education that may be developed in the rural areas of Latin America must take into account the high percentage of illiterates and an equally high percentage of those whose reading ability is limited. Hence the importance of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press as an instrument of research into this problem and as a means of transmitting the message of the Organization of American States to the people.

Titles Published

The series of fundamental education booklets now comprises the following titles:

<i>Artigas</i>	<i>Abomos Agrícolas</i>
<i>Abraham Lincoln</i>	<i>Defiende los Bosques</i>
<i>Eres Libre</i>	<i>Defiende tu Suelo</i>
<i>José Bonifacio</i>	<i>Mejor Semilla De Maíz</i>
<i>José de San Martín</i>	<i>El Huerto Casero</i>
<i>La Patria</i>	<i>Ayuda a tu Pueblo</i>
<i>Martí</i>	<i>Bueno y Barato</i>
<i>Morelos</i>	<i>Crédito Agrícola</i>
<i>Naciones Amigas</i>	<i>La Casa Rural</i>
<i>Simón Bolívar</i>	<i>Algo sobre América</i>
<i>Agua Pura</i>	<i>Aprende a Escribir</i>
<i>Cuidado con la Leche</i>	<i>Aprende a Medir</i>
<i>Cuida a tus Hijos</i>	<i>Algo de Geometría</i>
<i>El Alcohólicismo</i>	<i>La Biblioteca Popular</i>
<i>El Paludismo</i>	<i>Quetzacoatl</i>
<i>La Casa de Salud</i>	<i>San Francisco de Asís</i>
<i>La Tuberculosis</i>	<i>Vamos a Leer</i>
<i>La Viruela</i>	

PRODUCTION TECHNIQUES

Problems of Form and Content

The press carried out a study of the problems of form and content related to the production of fundamental education materials.

It later submitted its conclusions to a round table, which was attended by specialists from the United States and Latin America.

The main points considered were composition and style, vocabulary, presentation and format, typography, testing, and illustrations.

Literary style. This should be in keeping with the nature of the subject. The use of narration, exposition, short-story technique, dialogue, or fable, for example, depends on which type of expression the author considers best suited to the concepts to be conveyed. Content and form are indivisible, inasmuch as both terms refer to a single creative phenomenon. Consequently, it is inadvisable to impose arbitrarily any one literary form. The objective is that of interesting the reader in the subject and affording him pleasure, so that he will acquire the habit of reading. If this objective is to be achieved the form should express the content with naturalness. The form should have two further characteristics: it should be commensurate with the maturity of the reader and it should stimulate reflexion on the subject. In this way, the reader will receive aid in finding in the reading materials a solution to some of his own problems and difficulties.

The round table recommended, as general suggestions, that:

1. If concepts are to be expressed directly, the style of a letter or personal message should be used. This means addressing the reader with the familiar form *tu*, rather than using the third person. The more impersonal the text, the more difficult it is to read.
2. In the case of narration, an attempt should be made to project the concepts graphically, presenting them as events in the lives of characters with whom the reader can identify himself.
3. Unnecessary details should be omitted.
4. The story should be limited to a few basic ideas.
5. Words should be introduced systematically. New or unfamiliar words should be defined in context or presented for study at the beginning of the lesson. These words should then be repeated several times throughout the text.
6. Sentences should be short, especially at the beginning of the booklet. This does not mean that longer sentences cannot appear later on, but they should not contain subordinate clauses that require re-reading the entire sentence for an understanding of its meaning. It is advisable to vary the sentence structure.
7. The booklets should be easy to read. Paragraphs should not only be short but they should be separated one from the other by

wide spaces. The reader should feel able to overcome the difficulties in the selection that he has before him.

Rules of syntax. The writing of fundamental education reading materials should meet certain requirements of syntax. These requirements cannot be set forth as hard-and-fast rules. Since they must be arrived at subjectively rather than objectively, the author should have a feeling for the language and its basic form.

The round table suggested some standards for the writing of texts in Spanish: (a) regular (direct), rather than 'figurada' (avoiding inverted word order), syntax should be employed; (b) simple sentences should be used more frequently than complex sentences; (c) simple verb forms are to be preferred; (d) proclitic words are to be preferred; (e) difficult forms of the subjunctive should be avoided; (f) special care should be taken to avoid ambiguity.

Vocabulary. This should be as familiar as possible to the people for whom the material is prepared. The joint effort of teachers and writers having a mastery of the problems of composition is very important in vocabulary selection. Testing the material in the place where it is to be used is a good way to determine the effectiveness of the vocabulary. It is well to consult the available indexes of vocabulary frequency.

The fact should be borne in mind that the vocabulary is less difficult when the material is so presented that it awakens the interest of the reader and helps him solve his problems of daily living.

It is worth while to carry out research into the vocabulary of spoken Spanish, as a guide not only for improving the production of reading material, but also for determining the matters in which potential readers show an interest. These might serve as the subjects for future publications.

Illustrations. These should serve to awaken interest and aid the reader in understanding the text. There are no fixed rules for determining the number of illustrations or their proportion to the text. In general, illustrations are essential in the first phase of the reading process, but their need gradually diminishes in the advanced phases. The proportion between the illustrations and the text is determined by the purpose of the booklet. The illustrations should give the reader the feeling that they are designed for adults, not for children. Not only should they be attractive and easily understood but they should also be an accurate reflexion of the environment they depict. Illustrations fulfil their purpose to the

extent they clarify the text. In its first supplementary booklets the press has set forth the lessons in the form of 'ideo-visual' units. Each unit is composed of an illustration, a caption referring to the main idea of the lesson, and a text that generally begins by using the same words as those of the caption. In this way, the beginning reader has before him a unit in which the text, caption, and illustration all facilitate an understanding of the concepts presented.

Little research has been done on illustrations and conclusive observations cannot be made as yet. Research in this field is desirable.

Covers. In order to awaken the curiosity of the reader, the covers should have a direct relation to the subject. If the booklets appear in different series, each series can be identified by such distinguishing features as colour, format and title.

Format. Both the weight and size of the booklets should permit ease of handling. The press has found that the pocket size is best suited to its purposes.

Typography and composition. Type size and face should be adapted to the reader's level. The press has used, with very good results, 18-point Garamond type for the text and 24-point for the captions for the illustrations. In some instances, 14-point Century type has been used. There are other styles of type that, because of their clarity, would lend themselves to the preparation of text material for beginning readers, such as 18-point Granjon or 14-point Caslon for the text and 24-point for the captions.

The type should be clear and similar to that used in books and newspapers, Roman type is most appropriate for beginners' texts and italics should be used only in exceptional cases. The size of the page determines the number of lines, which should be so spaced that the words are easily distinguishable.

In material for beginners, the sentences should be broken so that a single thought is contained in each line. Words occurring at the end of lines should not be divided. The use of short paragraphs as units of reading material is recommended for the most advanced levels.

Application of the Techniques

Let us examine a concrete instance of the application of the preceding principles to a booklet entitled *La Viruela* (Smallpox):



POR TU TRABAJO DEBES
RECIBIR SALARIO

Fig. 12. The press is guided by the principles of the Pan American Union; this booklet is based on the *Declaración Americana de los Derechos y Deberes del Hombre*.

Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, *Eres Libre*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1952.

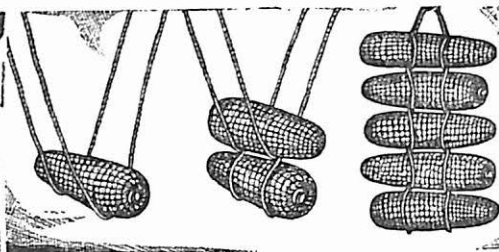


—La viruela deja siempre señales.
Vean a Rosa, tan linda.
Tiene señales en la cara.
Le dio la viruela cuando niña.

ROSA TIENE SEÑALES
DE LA VIRUELA



Las mazorcas se cuelgan.



Las mazorcas quedan separadas.

Este lugar debe ser seguro.
A este lugar no deben llegar
ni las ratas ni las aves.
Si no tomas
esta precaución, en una noche,
te quedarás sin mazorcas.
-¿Y qué más?
-Al poner las mazorcas en este lugar
procuraras que queden separadas

una de otra y que no se toquen.
-¡Ahora lo sé todo!
-No señor; no lo sabes todo.
Espera el final. Cuando estén secas
las mazorcas, las desgranarás a mano.
Entonces separarás los granos manchados
y los granos de color pálido,
y los granos de color distinto

14

Figs. 13 and 14. Illustrations should clarify the text for the new reader, not confuse him.

[13, 14] Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, *La Viruela, el Recuerdo de Pedrito*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1952, and by the same publisher, *Mejor Semilla de Matz*, 1954.

Selection of the subject. The subject was proposed by the Advisory Committee on Health of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press, because smallpox is a problem in several Latin American countries and because it is necessary to awaken the people to the need for vaccination and the benefit it brings.

Determination of content. In accordance with the technical data of the Advisory Committee on Health, it was necessary to acquaint the people with basic concepts on: the danger of smallpox—its symptoms, the manner of transmission; the possible consequences—treatment of the sick and prevention of contagion; the prevention of smallpox—importance of vaccination, period for most effective vaccination. These concepts were to be presented in a style that was simple and easily understood by persons of limited education.

Form of presentation. In dealing with a subject that is, in itself, dry, such as the one we are discussing, it was decided to evoke the dramatic elements of this epidemic disease which has so many victims, especially among young children. Therefore, the booklet was called *La Viruela—El Recuerdo de Pedrito* (Smallpox—In Memory of Pedrito).

The narrative is related by a humble woman, Maria, who has two sons, Pedrito and Pablo. Pedrito, the principal character in the story, is a healthy, happy boy who plays, sings, goes to school and is the hope and joy of his parents. One day he falls ill. What are his symptoms? He has a fever and his face is covered with spots. His mother does not know what is wrong and calls Juana, her neighbour. Juana, who is more experienced, says 'It is smallpox'.

In the following lessons, Juana tells of the possible consequences of smallpox—from the slightest, such as pockmarks, to the most serious, such as blindness and death. These consequences are presented dramatically, through reference to individuals in the neighbourhood who have suffered the disease. Maria calls the doctor. He finds the boy's condition very serious. The doctor completes the simple explanations given by Juana and also explains how smallpox is spread. At the same time, he advises vaccination of the healthy. Unfortunately, Pedrito dies. His parents are left numb with grief, and the neighbourhood, where the boy was very popular, is shocked. The doctor explains that smallpox may be transmitted also by objects that have been in contact with the sick person. Pedrito's father, concerned for his other son, burns the toy that belonged to the boy. In the neighbourhood there is sorrow and anxiety. There is a favourable reaction when Juana says that her sons Luis and Pablo, and the other children, did not fall ill

because they had been vaccinated. The doctor talks to the neighbours and explains to them the importance of being vaccinated. This moves the whole neighbourhood to be vaccinated.

Composition, syntax, and vocabulary. This booklet was developed through 'ideo-visual' units. Each of these units comprises an illustration, a caption, and text, all carrying out the same idea. Each unit develops a basic idea and unnecessary details in both the illustration and the text are avoided.

New words, graduated as to difficulty, are slowly introduced and repetition is used with naturalness. Thus, the illness is first described simply:

'One day Pedrito becomes sick.

He has a fever and his face is covered with spots.'

In the next lesson, a name is given to the illness whose symptoms have been described:

'She called Juana.

Juana says

It is smallpox.'

This new word, which corresponds to the concept that is to be emphasized, is repeated in the caption and in the text of the following lesson, number 11. It is presented three times in lesson 12; twice in number 13; and once in number 14. The same procedure applies to the word 'vaccinate' and its derivatives, which are presented twice in lesson 14 and three times in lesson 16. These words are used again and again in successive lessons.

The sentences are short: very short and very few in the first six lessons. They are lengthened and increased in number as the story develops, but are kept within the limits of simplicity and ready comprehension. The length of the lines is such that each presents a clear and complete idea.

The sentences and the paragraphs are separated by blank spaces in such a manner as to permit the reader to grasp each reading unit easily.

There is a unity of theme throughout the booklet. Each scene is based on preceding scenes and introduces the next. There is a naturalness in the development of the narrative.

The vocabulary consists of words with which the people of Latin America are familiar as it is based on word frequency lists and on current usage in Latin America. The characters are typical of Latin American villagers and it is easy for the readers for whom the booklets are designed to identify themselves with them.

As for syntax the standards to which we have referred in this report have been followed.

Illustrations. The illustrations are realistic, attractive and readily understood. Each refers to a concrete idea: My name is Maria; Pedrito and Luis play; Pedrito is sick; Tono is blind; The doctor vaccinated us; Pedrito died; They vaccinated the other children.

The cover presents the principal character, Pedrito, and the format permits easy use. The type used for the captions is 24 point and that of the text is 18 point. At the end, some advice regarding smallpox is given in ordinary 14-point type.

The booklet ends with an explanation of some words that may be considered difficult and a list of questions for a summary and review of the lessons.

Testing the Materials

In order to determine in a practical way levels of comprehension, gradation, effectiveness of illustrations, and in general the ability to attract and hold the attention of the reader, the Latin American Fundamental Education Press arranged a series of tests, with the co-operation of the Costa Rican and Mexican educational authorities and with the help of private institutions, as well as educators, experts and citizens.

Each of the booklets was prepared for the test in four parts. One of these parts comprised only illustrations; another, illustrations and captions; a third simply the text without illustrations; and the fourth, the complete text with illustrations and captions.

The tests were carried out with the help of teachers, social workers, extension agents and rural educators. Each of the test directors acquainted groups of readers from rural and urban areas with the materials. One group read the text without illustrations, then closed their books and made notes of what they remembered of the text read; another group studied illustrations without any text and explained their meaning; still others read complete texts with illustrations, then closed the books and summarized what they had read.

At the same time additional tests were made of vocabulary comprehension, interest aroused by the subjects and subjects that might be of interest for future reading.

Direct Relations with Readers

In addition, the press seeks to enter into direct relations with the readers. For this purpose each booklet includes a page that may be returned to the Pan-American Union, postage free. This page

presents a series of questions designed to reveal the interest aroused by the subject, vocabulary comprehension and appreciation of the illustrations. There are also questions as to new subjects that might interest the readers. The press has received many answers from different American countries.

PROMOTION, DISTRIBUTION AND PRICES

Publicity

The press began its work of distribution by sending sample copies and catalogues to organizations and individuals who might be interested in using these materials in the Latin American countries. In addition, it sent catalogues and information releases to the most important newspapers and journals of Latin America and to many individuals interested in education and in social progress.

Members of the staffs of the Division of Education and the Division of Publications and Distribution of the Pan-American Union and members of the staff of the press visited several Latin American countries and established direct contact with persons interested in fundamental education, in order to acquaint them with the materials.

Processing of Orders

The initial policy followed by the press was to distribute the materials at cost upon request from those interested in receiving them. For this purpose special order forms were distributed, including price lists. In this way the press distributed more than 2,000,000 booklets to governments, many official and private organizations and to the public in general.

Orders for fundamental education materials should be addressed to the Pan-American Union.

Packing and Mailing

For packing and distribution by mail the press uses the services of the Division of Publications and Distribution, which has the necessary competent personnel, at the Pan-American Union, and agencies in the Latin American capitals.

Fundamental Education Libraries

The success of the first distribution efforts led the press to a new

conception of the use of the fundamental education materials. It decided to combine the materials into fundamental education libraries, that is, into reading centres where committees and groups interested in fundamental education might meet to consider specific problems and to discuss and analyse them in the light of reading materials specially prepared to stimulate such group activity.

The materials state the problem, suggest solutions, offer information and propose concrete activities for the community or individuals in search of the best possible solution. In this way, the Fundamental Education Library becomes a true fundamental education school. The experience of the press in this regard has been very fortunate, to judge by the abundant correspondence from Latin American communities whose members have organized to work together and solve their problems, taking as their point of departure the Fundamental Education Library.

The 100 basic booklets. The library consists of 10 copies of each of the 100 basic booklets, which cover, as pointed out above, the objectives of fundamental education—in other words, the knowledge and skills taught in the elementary school—language, elements of mathematics and the natural and social sciences, an introduction to community life, health, agriculture, labour, economic and social affairs, and leisure reading. Thus, the library seeks to be an encyclopedia of information for everyday living.

Establishing the libraries. The Organization of American States plans to set up 100,000 fundamental education libraries in Latin America and the programme of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press for 1956-57 calls for the establishment of 5,000 of these libraries.

The plan has been very well received in Latin America. The first two countries officially to adopt a National Programme of Fundamental Education Libraries were Costa Rica and Nicaragua. Each has formed a central committee composed of experts in fundamental education and library organization, and headed by the Ministers of Education. In both countries various questionnaires have been sent out as to resources available in the local communities for the operation of libraries and on existing needs, the possible number of readers using the libraries and the persons prepared to co-operate as volunteers in serving the libraries. Each of the aforementioned committees has received enough materials from the Latin American Fundamental Education Press for 500 libraries and plans to establish 1,000 more. The press has also sent materials to Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru for 500 libraries each.

Operating the libraries. To attain the objectives set forth in the fundamental education materials the Fundamental Education Library should promote *discussion groups* and meetings of the community as a whole. These groups should be set up in accordance with the methods appropriate to adult education. This will result in obtaining the co-operation of community leaders, in visits to private homes, and in arousing interest in the subjects with which the reading materials deal.

The press has prepared *wall catalogues* displaying the covers of the booklets. These catalogues, attractively coloured, are placed on the outside of the building which houses the library and in the reading room; placed within public view, they help to arouse interest and to stimulate group meetings.

The *location* of the library can be in rural schools, municipal buildings, city halls, parish houses, union or co-operative buildings, or private homes. For *furniture*, a table, some chairs and shelves to hold the booklets and other reading materials acquired by the community will suffice. The materials can be displayed on an exhibit board or a large piece of cardboard with small books to hold the booklets up to view. The walls may be decorated with the wall charts of the press. Of course, each community will arrange and decorate its reading room in accordance with its taste and resources.

The press has prepared a *guide booklet* entitled *La Biblioteca Popular*, in which suggestions are offered as to the organization of the library and use of the materials. This booklet tells how a town that received the materials of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press proceeded to set up and operate a fundamental education library. The substance of this booklet is based on actual occurrences in Latin American communities.

A *work guide* containing suggestions for developing the activities of the Fundamental Education Library has also been prepared by the press. This guide presents some of the background on the origin, purpose and scope of the libraries and some suggestions as to their establishment and use. The guide takes up the functions of promoters of fundamental education and of group leaders. It also deals with the number of participants in reading groups, motivation of interest in the materials, individual and group reading procedures and the explanation, discussion, summary and application of the materials. All these suggestions of methodology are based on experience obtained by Fundamental Education Centres in different American countries.

In the guide great importance is assigned to the use of the services of government experts in the discussion of the various

booklets. It is suggested that the libraries seek the aid of cultural mission personnel; agriculture, extension and health services; university extension; departments of cultural extension of the Ministries of Education; motion pictures; radio.

Finally, it is suggested that qualified persons of the community such as teachers, doctors, veterinaries, experienced farmers and others, be invited to take part in the discussion of the different subjects. Thus the libraries offer a great stimulus to fundamental education.

Size of the Printings, and Price

Each new title is published by the press in a first edition of 10,000 copies, which are distributed among official and private organizations interested in fundamental education. In addition, the press complies with many individual requests received from teachers and persons interested in making cultural progress. New editions or printings are issued according to the demands and the possibilities of utilization. Thus, for example, a booklet such as *Defiende tu Suelo* (Protect your Soil) has had six printings, with a total of 236,000 copies; there has been much less demand for some others. Under the new policy of establishing fundamental education libraries, the press plans to publish one new title each month, in editions large enough to permit distribution to the libraries, governments and other official bodies, and to such portions of the general public in Latin America as may be interested in fundamental education.

The Press bases its prices solely on the cost of the paper and the printing. The other expenses incurred in the preparation and publication of the booklets are considered a service of Pan-American Union. In addition, the press allows a 30 per cent discount on orders for 1,000 or more copies. These nominal prices have been set as a contribution of the Pan-American Union to the struggle against illiteracy in Latin America. The booklets are shipped in cardboard boxes in lots of about 210 copies, weighing about 18 pounds.

Gift Plan

The Pan-American Union has developed a plan for cultural action whereby private institutions and individuals interested in furthering the literacy campaigns in Latin America may co-operate with the Latin American Fundamental Education Press, through the donation of booklets and other fundamental education materials.

The institution, group or person may designate the recipient—a school or agency working in fundamental education. If the donor does not name the recipient, the Pan-American Union makes a selection from its files of groups in need of adult reading materials. In such cases, the donor is notified of the group receiving the gift. He also receives a map showing the area where the booklets will be used, samples of the booklets sent and a certificate expressing appreciation in the Western Hemisphere's fight against illiteracy.

The Pan-American Union informs the recipient of the gift and requests him to send his acknowledgement to the donor. Four gift packages are now available:

Package No. 1. 120 booklets, 10 copies each of 12 titles, \$4.

Package No. 2. 240 booklets, 20 copies each of 12 titles, \$8.

Package No. 3. 1,200 booklets, 100 copies each of 12 titles, \$36.

Package No. 4. 2,400 booklets, 200 copies each of 12 titles, \$72.

The gift packages are payable by cheque or money order drawn in favour of the Pan-American Union.

Number of Booklets Published

Forty booklets were issued by the press in 1953 and 1954, with a total printing of nearly two and three-quarter million copies.

SUMMARY AND NOTES

By Dr. Rupert East

The work of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press is comparatively easy to study, as it has a limited objective and has provided a complete set of excellent practical examples. Its main contribution is a well-produced type of first reader for adults in the rural parts of Latin America. The presentation and choice of material in this series has also been made the subject of a study by Dr. Seth Spaulding (see page 254).

The report notes that 'the proportion between the illustrations and the text is determined by the purpose of the booklet'. Others may unfortunately find it necessary to add 'and by the funds available'. The productions of the press are printed on good paper with a stiffish cover. There is a full-page illustration to every page of the text, which is set out with wide margins and generous spacing. Some pages contain only a few lines of type. In other words, these are comparatively expensive productions. They could not be sold to the public for which they are actually intended at cost price, and could hardly be published at all by organizations with a restricted budget, as for example the African Literature Bureaux. If, however, cost is not a primary factor, these booklets are undoubtedly among the best of their kind, and the experience gained should be of great value to any one working on practical production in this field.

It should be added that by catering for the whole of Latin America the press has certainly been able to cut its production costs, owing to the comparatively large size of the editions printed. In other parts of the world this is not usually possible. If the area to be covered by the literature contains several languages, or even dialects of the same language, a separate edition of the text must be printed for each, and if there is a difference in the nature of the country, and in the type of people, customs and dress, it is not even satisfactory to use the same set of illustrations.

In fact, it would perhaps be true to say that the more elementary the grade of literature the smaller the area in which it can be used, and the earlier the stage of literacy the more necessary it is to adapt the vocabulary and illustrations to the particular readers for whom the books are intended. It may indeed be asked whether a single edition of this type of literature can be ideally suited to the whole of Latin America, but practical considerations doubtless weigh more heavily in this case.

This is a question where the local literacy worker, who sees the particular needs and foibles of the people among whom he lives, is apt to come into conflict with the large-scale publisher, who likes to think in terms of big editions for universal distribution—it is difficult for him to appreciate the importance attached locally to what appear minor differences of detail.

PART FOUR

TECHNICAL PAPERS

CHAPTER VIII

RESEARCH ON COMMUNICATION THROUGH PRINTED MATERIALS¹

AVAILABILITY OF PRINTED MATERIAL

Limiting ourselves entirely to printed materials, what do we know about this medium and its potential effectiveness in communicating ideas? Research on the reading habits of adults throughout the world has shown conclusively that people choose first from that material which is immediately available. From that, they choose what is easy to read, and according to their subject matter interests. Availability first, readability second, subject interests third.²

Ways of getting printed material to the public in such countries as Burma are extremely limited. There is as yet no nation-wide network of public libraries. To be sure, there are several hundred Ministry of Information reading-rooms at district and sub-divisional levels throughout the country, stocked mostly with propaganda materials from foreign embassies and agencies, government brochures and pamphlets, and books published by the Burma Translation Society. A number of municipalities have libraries, and private reading-rooms exist in quantity. We have no figures, however, of regular attendance at, or of books borrowed from existing reading-rooms and libraries and it is quite reasonable to expect that the percentage of population served is very small. Even of the population served, it is probable that very few people utilize the facilities.

Here is a large sphere of very practical research involving only the collection statistics. Who is served by libraries? How many of those served use the libraries? How much is spent, *per capita* of population served by the libraries, on library staffing and acquisition? What books are stocked? What are the membership and loan procedures?

Even in a highly literate country such as the United States of

1. Extracted from a paper by SETH SPAULDING, Ph.D., prepared for the Burma Research Society and read in December 1955, at the University of Rangoon.

2. Lester Asheim, 'Research on the Reading of Adults', *Library Trends*, vol. 1, no. 4, April 1953, pp. 454-61.

America, 17 per cent of the total population (nearly 27 million people) does not have access to a public library.¹ In 10 of the 48 States, over 40 per cent of the population is without a library service. Of those people served by a public library, a very limited number makes any constant use of the facilities; of those that visit the library frequently, the chance of their being influenced by any one item of printed material is again very small. It is therefore probable that in the United States relatively few people would ever see or be influenced by an informational or educational item distributed only through the public libraries. It is dangerous to rely solely on libraries and reading-rooms as the distribution channel for educational materials.

Based on the findings of mass education workers in Burma it is estimated that only 6-8 per cent of the population in Htaukkyan, a Mass Education Council model village, makes use of the library.² A useful study would be to survey library users in the area to discover the influence on library usage of such factors as proximity to the library, education, occupation, and so on. Proximity seems to be an important factor. Ease in borrowing books might be another.

Further studies requiring nothing more than collecting statistics would involve participation and co-operation of the publishers in Burma. There are no statistics readily available indicating the number of books published in Burma during the year, the subjects they treat, the editions in which they are published, the way they are distributed, the profits they have made, and so on.

Within three weeks after the end of 1954, we knew that in the United States 11,901 new books had been published during the year, 5,000 publications had been issued by the U.S. Government Printing Office and nearly 30,000 items had been published by the United Nations. In terms of books, we knew how many had been published in each subject area, how many had been published by each publisher, and we had a general indication of publishers' editions and publishers' profits.³ A number of tentative conclusions as to reading interests and tastes could be gleaned from merely studying sales figures as reported by the various publishers.

In Burma we talk of the need for more materials in Burmese—yet we do not even know what exists. This type of documentary

1. 'How Many and How Much—Some Statistical Facts', *ALA Bulletin*, vol. 48, no. 9, October 1954, pp. 520-5.

2. U Ba Wann, in: Seth Spaulding (ed.), *Communication Through Educational Materials; Summary document of the Burma Translation Society Educational Publications Study Group, January 6 - April 1, 1955*, Rangoon, Burma Translation Society, 1955.

3. 'Annual Trade Statistics', *Publishers Weekly*, 22 January 1955.

service is badly needed. A book association or some similar organization might be able to offer this service. Much could be done by merely copying listings from the *Burma Gazette* (each book publisher is required to deposit three copies with the district magistrate and these books are subsequently listed in the *Burma Gazette*). These listings could be classified according to publisher, subject matter, and so on, and publishers could be approached for fuller information.

Beyond the mere collection of figures on available materials, there is the problem of expanding distribution. In Burma, editions of most printed material are pitifully small, and in the case of publications distributed commercially the distribution is often limited to one or two principal outlets. Experimentation is needed both in distributing free materials more effectively and in making commercial publications available to all.

Admittedly, most commercial publishers do not have the funds or the experience to initiate country-wide sales networks which would make appropriate publications available to every potential purchaser. The answer might be co-operative sales through a distribution organization, subsidized in the beginning—a co-operative distribution organization which would handle the publications of member publishers. Thus, book-vans, experimental sale or return distribution, display devices, and publicity could be shared by a number of co-operating publishers.

Studies of the purchasing power of rural people in Burma are needed; it is certainly very low compared with that of Western countries. Books, however, selling at say one kyat will not take relatively more of an average rural Burman's monthly income than does a three or four dollar book in Western countries. Reasonable books, readably written, and on subjects of vital significance to the rural reader will sell if marketed properly. This is proved by the hundreds of thousands of almanacs sold in India each year, at prices ranging up to two rupees. Classics also have a steady sale in India, even in rural areas. It might be possible to test the advisability of either free or commercial distribution schemes by experimenting with suggested schemes under strictly controlled conditions in pilot areas.

READABILITY

Even assuming that the publication arrives and is available, it must be easy to read by individual members of the target audience. If the material requires excessive concentration, or if the vocabu-

lary is out of the reach of the intended audience, the publication will have very low readership.

Journalists, authors and educators often contend that it is not difficult to write simple, clear, concise prose that is easily read by all. Readability and comprehension studies, however, have shown that many newspaper articles are written at a level several grades above the average reading ability of the newspaper readers. Other studies have shown that government prose, business communication, advertising copy, and so on, are often written at a language level designed to lose the audience before it has ever been captured!

In English and in Spanish, studies have established readability formulas which statistically rate reading material according to its level of reading difficulty.¹ Such formulas have been found to be useful in gauging the reading difficulty of materials destined to communicate ideas to the public. People will not read material above their ability and tend to prefer material that is two of three standards easier than their optimum ability.

Readability formulas, of course, do not measure all of the factors influencing the communication potential of printed material. They do, however, give a valid index of the complexity of the material. The component factors of a formula are isolated by most researchers by first having a series of passages read by adults or children at various levels of education, who are then tested for comprehension of the passages. Degrees of difficulty are established according to the completeness of comprehension achieved by respondents with varying degrees of educational background.

Among the factors found relevant to the reading difficulty of English prose are: number of prepositional phrases used in the material, number of dependent clauses, number of affixes and prefixes used, length of words used, length of sentences.

In English, average word length is an indication of difficulty of words used in the passage. In Spanish, word length has been shown to have little or no correlation with reading difficulty. However, in Spanish an index of vocabulary difficulty may be based on the average relative frequency of words used. That is, if the words in a passage are, on the average, among the less frequently used in the language, then the passage will be more difficult than a second passage which uses, on the average, words that appear *more* frequently in general.

1. Edgar Dale and Jeanne S. Chall, 'A Formula for Predicting Readability', *Educational Research Bulletin*, vol. XXVII, 1948, pp. 11-20, 37-54; Rudolf Flesch, *How to Test Readability*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1951; Irving Lorge, 'Predicting Readability', *Teachers College Record*, vol. XL, 1944, pp. 404-19; Seth Spaulding, 'Two Formulas for Predicting Reading Difficulty of Spanish', *Educational Research Bulletin*, vol. XXX, no. 5, 1951, pp. 117-24.

Vocabulary Usage

Because word usage has been so often shown to influence reading difficulty, it is helpful to establish relative frequency of appearance of the words of a language. The more frequently used words, on the average, will be the easiest to read, since they will be familiar to the average reader. In English and Spanish, the first 2,000 most frequent words make up at least 90 per cent of all the running words encountered in most printed material, although perhaps 50,000 words are available to choose from. The 100 most frequent words make up at least 50 per cent of all the running words of the language.

When preparing literature for rural audiences, however, a word of warning is advisable, even in the use of frequency counts. Frequency counts are of the words that authors use in writing—they give no indication as to vocabulary usage in rural areas. Even after a frequency count is available, the most frequent words on such a list might well be tested in village areas to see which words are understood and which are not, and to discover which words, if any, are used by the villagers instead of the ones on the list. I directed such a test in Cuba two years ago and it showed marked discrepancies between rural vocabulary usage and highly frequent words on the list.

A frequency list in Hindi is about to be published, and other Asian languages are being so studied. Three methods have been recently attempted for counting Burmese words; unfortunately none has been successful. U Myo Min, Counsellor of the Burma Translation Society, and Bo Ba Ko, Research Director of the Society, report that the first method, the counting of 'words', was inadequate because of the inflexional nature of the language. The second, the counting of 'sense units', was not as successful as was hoped—tabulators could not agree on the sense units appearing in sample passages. The third possibility, that of counting syllables, is of doubtful usefulness since we wish to know the frequency of appearance of meaningful symbols, not fragments of meanings.

Technical Terms

Research is needed in many languages on standardization of vocabulary usage in technical areas. Burma is well advanced in this respect, with the Burma Translation Society Terms Committees meeting regularly. The committees meet at the society's headquarters and terminology in various subjects is agreed upon and standardized.

The availability of such lists now makes a further problem pressing. How can these agreed technical words be fused into the language habits of the people? True, the words that are accepted by the society's committees take into account present-day language usage, but the judgements of the Terms Committees as to present-day language usage of the masses are at best subjective. Also, many of the terms are relatively new and are used infrequently.

To be sure, all publications of the Burma Translation Society use agreed technical terms. Even here we run into danger, however, since the agreed word has meaning for the person who has access to the Burma Translation Society word lists, but of itself the word may have no specific meaning for the general reader who has not been in on the Terms Committee discussions. Actually, many technical terms may well be classified as new words when introduced in reading material.

Introduction of New Words

Studies have shown that new words introduced into a text are learned and remembered only if they are introduced in varied contexts and repeated a number of times to ensure mechanical recognition of the word.¹ Some research workers have suggested that a new word in reading material should be repeated a minimum of seven or eight times before it can be assumed that the word will be subsequently recognized. Similarly, if complete meaning of the word is to be developed, the word must be carefully introduced in contexts which illustrate all facets of its meaning.

Finally, no matter how often the word is repeated, it will not be learned by the intended reader unless the material itself invites reading; it must be vital, interesting and significant to the lives of the intended readers.

In attempting to create specialized vocabularies rapidly in many subjects, it may also be wise to note research studies which have shown that for most people the burden is excessive if they are required to learn more than five or six new words in any piece of reading material. With beginner readers in rural areas, it may be best to limit the estimated learning burden even more stringently than this.

1. Seth Spaulding, 'Three Dimensional Word Repetition in Reading Material', *Modern Language Journal*, vol. XXXVII, no. 5, 1953, pp. 226-30.

Style

In addition to structural and vocabulary factors which contribute to reading difficulty, style has been shown to influence the readability of text material. In English, one statistical formula measures the personal interest of reading material. This formula measures the number of personal references used, i.e., 'you', 'our', 'we', 'they', proper names and words that deal with human beings or their relationships.¹ Material abounding in such words has been found to be on the average more interesting to most people than material which is not.

One of the reasons for this may be that in English it is possible to be very impersonal when writing, using such passive expressions as 'it is necessary to assure a pure water supply to preserve a healthy community'. A more personal and communicative style would be 'you should boil your water if you want to stay healthy'.

Other studies have indicated the following: material should be broken up into digestible parts, with the stages of the argument very clear; summaries and repetitions should be used at appropriate points; fine distinctions usually weaken the impact; ideas should not be telescoped and crowded; ways of involving the reader, such as by asking him questions, are useful; short paragraphs with plenty of headings and sub-headings help the reader to follow the development of thought.

During his investigations in the rural areas of Latin America the author found that adults with two or three standards of education could read with full comprehension the materials that were written at the most elementary level—sentences averaging eight to ten words or less and 92 per cent or more of the words taken from the 1,500 most frequently used words of the language.² Such material rates between 40 and 60 on a 200-point difficulty scale used in the author's Spanish readability formula.

Other test results showed factors not measurable on a readability formula, for instance:

1. Villagers were found to be able to read only a maximum of 800 words of material at a sitting without becoming fatigued.
2. The relative percentage of information retained (in terms of total ideas in the material) was *inversely* proportionate to the *number of different ideas* in the material. In other words, only a few large ideas can be communicated in any one booklet, and

1. Rudolf Flesch, *How to Test Readability*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1951.
 2. Seth Spaulding, 'An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Fundamental Reading Materials for Latin American Adults', Columbus, Ohio State University, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, 1953, p. 110 ff., p. 234 ff. (See summary on pages 254-61).

if too much information is presented very little specific knowledge will be retained by the reader.

3. The type of material that was found to be most effective among rural adult audiences was a series of simple, highly illustrated booklets which contained very few ideas per printed page and per booklet, booklets which used the narrative or descriptive type of communication procedure rather than the prescription, generalization, or theory type of material, and booklets which were directly aimed at the core of the interests of the individual.

Typography

Even if the text is well prepared and is in itself quite readable, the typography may make it appear so unreadable as to destroy its potential effectiveness. Studies on eye movement and reading speed have demonstrated a number of typographical factors which influence readability of printed material in English. Those conclusions which may have some relation to the communication of ideas through printed material in Burmese are as follows:¹

1. Small type, although allowing much more material to be printed on a page than large type, is not a saving. Small type loses readers because it looks difficult and is actually burdensome to read. Type smaller than 10 point in English is not recommended and many studies suggest that type as large as 12 point is advisable for many purposes.
2. An often neglected factor, but one which has been proved to affect reading ease as much as type size, is *leading*, or the space between the lines: 8-point type with considerable leading between the lines, so that ascenders and descenders are well separated, is easier to read than 10-point type which has no leading between the lines.
3. Lines can be either too long or too short for maximum reading ease. In English, an 80 mm. ($2\frac{1}{5}$ inch) line length seems to make for maximum reading efficiency for the average reader. This figure applies to 10-point type and might have to be altered according to type size, since larger type would obviously mean that less material appeared in the line. In any case, long lines seem to impede reading owing to the difficulty of finding the next line at the end of the preceding line. Lines which are too short bother the reader with choppiness.
4. Indentation at the beginning of paragraphs facilitates reading ease. It has even been suggested that every other line be in-

1. D. G. Paterson and M. A. Tinker, *How to Make Type Readable*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1940.

dented a few millimetres, not enough to alter the length of the line or uniformity of horizontal movement, but enough to help the eye in differentiating the lines. This suggestion may be useful in designing reading materials for people of limited reading ability. Any aid which would help such readers route their eyes along the appropriate lines would be desirable.

The author has suggested on a number of occasions that in preparing materials for adults of limited reading ability the whole of the paragraph, with the exception of the first line, should be indented to the right. This would make it possible for the person reading to find the second line of a paragraph much more easily and with less distance for the eye to travel than with traditional indentation.

5. Typography experts have emphasized the need to use plenty of white space, both in illustrations and around textual material. Material that looks crowded appears difficult to read; material with plenty of white space around it looks easy to read. The use of white space is not a waste of paper. On the contrary, lack of white space is a waste of paper since the material will lose readership.
6. The typography must also be consistent. At most, two different type faces should be used on any one page or on any cover. Using several type faces destroys unity and the material looks choppy. Even if two different type faces are used, they must be types that blend well. In Burmese, there is an unfortunate tendency to attempt to use as many different type faces as possible on covers of published material. This only destroys the legibility of the material and adds nothing to its attractiveness. It is quite acceptable to use several different sizes of type on the cover of a publication. Distorted faces, however, demonstrate only the ingenuity of the artist and detract from the communication potential of the type face.
7. The most attractive and effective layout is that which includes only the essential material needed for communicating the desired idea. The text, appropriate headings, sub-headings, pictorial illustrations and captions need no fancy scrolls, decorative devices such as stars, or doodles of various shapes and kinds. These irrelevant designs serve only to detract from the message. White space should not be filled up with irrelevant material.

Use of Colour

Many studies have attempted to prove audience preferences for one colour or another or for one combination or another, but

most of these studies offer little guidance to the publisher. Psychologists have shown that colour choices in isolation mean nothing, since people choose colour to serve a function. A person who says green is his favourite colour will not choose green for his baby's blanket, green for his dinner plates, green for his shirt or green for his shoes. People choose colour in terms of the function that the colour is to serve.¹

Here, then, is the hint that we need in terms of the use of colour in our publications. Colour must have a function in terms of the message. Colour has the power to attract and it also has the power to repel if used unwisely. It must be used very sparingly and be used purposefully. It can point out and emphasize portions of the text and of the illustrations and it can make pictorial materials more realistic.

Studies have shown that unless full colour realism can be used in illustrative material, it may be wise to limit the use of one colour to decorative motifs such as border designs, rather than attempt to use the one colour in the drawing itself. Black and white drawings with a one-colour dab here and there may damage the illustrations' communication potential by distorting the colour realism.

Further studies have shown that the effectiveness of several colours may not always justify the cost of using them. Textbook publishers in the United States are increasingly preparing one-colour textbooks with considerable success.

Illustrations

Research has shown that a text accompanied by well-thought-out illustrations is more effective in communicating ideas than text alone.² This means that, interest apart, people get more ideas out of well-illustrated material.

But illustrations attract attention and anything that attracts attention can divert it. If considerable illustrative material is to be used, text and illustrations should be planned hand in hand to realize as fully as possible the potential of each. There is a middle road between the comic book on the one hand, and the traditional textbook on the other. This middle road makes full use of the

1. Harold Mendelsohn and Irving Crespi, 'The Effects of Autistic Pressure and Institutional Structure on Preferences in a Choice Situation', *Educational Psychology*, vol. XXXVI, 1952, pp. 109-23.

2. Seth Spaulding, 'Research on Pictorial Illustration', *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, vol. III, no. 1, 1955, pp. 35-45.



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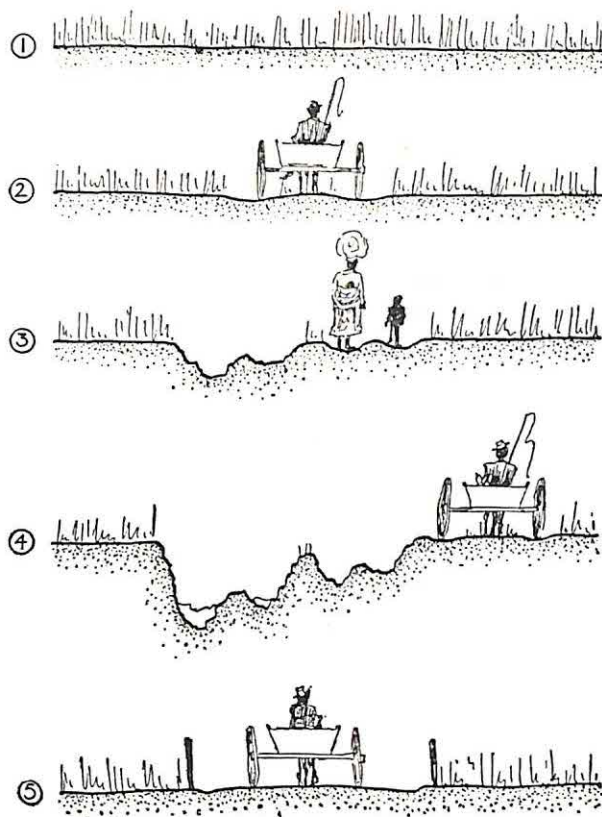
Figs. 15 and 16. Illustrations should show the people and life familiar to the reader.

[15] *Infant and Child Care for Young East African Mothers*, London, Sheldon Press, 1948.



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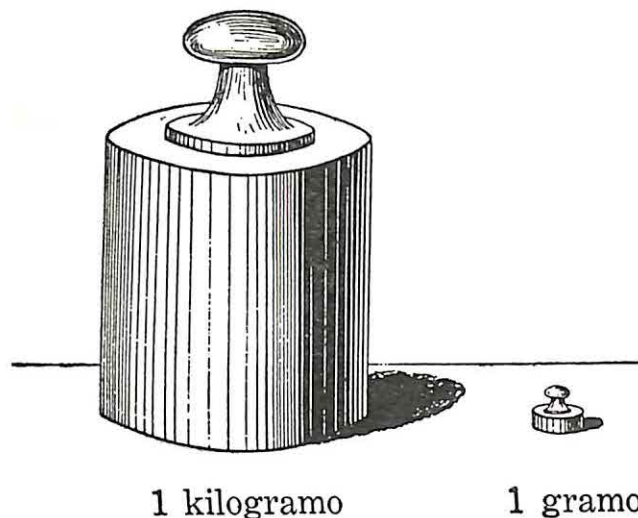
[16] *Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, Agua Pura*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1952.



Figs. 17 and 18. If the diagrammatic illustration is to be effective it must be very simple.

[17] Edward Roux, *Mavuno na Afya kwetu Afrika*. (Harvest and Health in Africa), London, Nelson, 1947.

[18] Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana, *Aprende a Medir*, Washington, Editorial Latinoamericana de Educación Fundamental, Unión Panamericana, 1955.



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illustration as a communication medium without neglecting the text.

Effective illustrative material, it has been found, is usually realistic, bold, and to the point. Superfluous detail should be eliminated as it should in reading material. Clear-cut line drawings, uncluttered and with the inessential eliminated, are more effective than cluttered, artistic masterpieces that attempt to communicate several ideas at the same time.

Illustrations are two dimensional, static, often black and white representations of noisy, smelly, active, colourful true-life experiences. These two-dimensional representations can be misinterpreted, almost as easily as textual material, if they are not carefully constructed taking into account the background of experience of the intended audience.¹

In tests carried out in Latin America, for instance, drawings of river barges were misinterpreted by villagers who lived inland. Their limited experience did not lead them to associate the drawing of the barge with water. It looked like a pig-pen. Similarly, a bottle immediately identified as a milk bottle by city folks will be quite unidentifiable to many villagers.

READING INTERESTS

Let us assume that we have made available to the potential audience plenty of printed material that is easy to read and attractive; the people will now choose those publications that are closest to their interest. What do we know about the reading interests of the audience?

The most urgent needs as we have mentioned are those which directly influence a reader's basic interests. In essence, every individual's personal life consists of constant decision making, decisions that involve short-term and relatively unimportant actions such as whether to wear a green or a blue dress, and decisions which involve longer-term commitments such as whether or not to pack up and move to the city. Anything that helps people make decisions, whether they be short term or long term, will motivate interest. Furthermore a person who is dissatisfied will be interested in reading about whatever it may be that is worrying him.

In order to produce interest in a subject about which there is no dissatisfaction, it may be necessary to produce the dissatisfaction.

1. Seth Spaulding, 'An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Communication Potential of Pictorial Illustrations', *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, vol. IV, no. 1, 1956.

For instance, a farmer may be happy with his method of cultivation because he can conceive of no other procedure. He may never have seen anyone do it differently so he may not realize that better results are possible. The farmer must then be convinced by demonstration or by other means that improvement is possible before he will be interested in learning about newer methods of cultivation.

It follows then, that except for purely recreational interests, people are interested in that which is familiar. It is the familiar which causes dissatisfaction which is intimately tied in with his needs and interests. It is also the familiar which offers the satisfaction that he seeks.

Certain broad patterns of interest are constant throughout an adult's life span. Security, both economic and social, is a need felt by adults throughout their lives. Similarly, most adults are interested in matters pertaining to health and hygiene, family and recreation. But these categories can be misleading, since information must have immediate relevancy to the reader in terms of his way of looking at things.

For instance, although an interest in recreation is constant throughout an adult's life span, interest in specific recreational activities will change with age. Younger adults may be interested in participation in active sports but with advancing age interest turns to spectator sports and board games. Again, interest in the family changes with the age of the children and the age of the parents. The relationship between the various members of the family obviously changes as the years progress. Within the broad category of reading interest, specific interest will change according to age, socio-economic status, and occupation.

Many studies in Western countries have attempted to discover specific reading interests of the people. Surveys of library usage have been made on the assumption that the relative frequency of books borrowed is an indication of reading interest. This is not entirely valid since only a certain type of reader frequents the library and even those that use the library are limited to the materials available. No one knows from library statistics whether the same books would be borrowed by the same people if these people had universal choice.¹

Other studies have attempted to survey audiences, asking individuals what they like to read. I myself surveyed some 600 adults of limited reading ability in rural areas in Costa Rica and Mexico

1. Leon Carnovsky, 'Public Libraries', in: Walter S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*, New York, The MacMillan Company, 1952, pp. 690-701.

using a five-category questionnaire.¹ The results indicated that in both Costa Rica and Mexico, those interviewed preferred first, recreational reading; second, material on health; third, material on home care. A category entitled *crops* ranked fourth in Costa Rica and *legends* fifth and last. The order of these two last was reversed in Mexico. A write-in section asking for other suggestions as to type of reading materials preferred showed overwhelming interest in materials dealing with *personal advancement* and *occupation*. In Costa Rica there was more recreational reading interest expressed than in Mexico. Costa Rican respondents had a mean average of 4.3 years of schooling, while the Mexican respondents had an average of 1.8 years of schooling. A tentative conclusion then may be that audiences with very limited educational training will be interested more in reading material directly related to occupation or personal advancement, while an audience with several years of educational training will have increasing interest in reading as a recreation.

Category type interest surveys may be of some help when a simple device requiring very little time and very little skill in administration is required. Such devices, however, are not particularly reliable or valid in predicting specific reading interests. When asked their reading interests, most people are not able to generalize on the motives which lead them to read what they read. Also, it is difficult for a person to make a valid answer when he is asked to choose between categories. A farmer may not check *agriculture* as an interest category, and yet he will read avidly a book on cattle disease if his cattle are showing signs of illness. Inversely, a person may check *stories* as a category and yet a thick historical novel might conceivably not interest this person at all.

More accurate indications of reading interest are obtained from socio-anthropological surveys designed to measure the tensions and stresses that are felt by villagers.

Pre-testing

Even if general reading interests of a potential audience are known, it is wise to pre-test individual publications in terms of communication potential. Such tests allow improvement of the publication before it is published and also contribute data toward a clearer

1. Seth Spaulding, 'An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Fundamental Education Reading Materials for Latin American Adults', *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, vol. IV, no. 1, pp. 91-109; see also 'Trial run', *Americas*, December 1952, pp. 20-2 (a digest of this paper appears on page 254 *et seq.*).

understanding of the process of communication through printed material.

The simplest technique of testing communication potential of the presentation is to mimeograph the material, choose a number of subjects who are representative of the target audience, and have the subjects read the mimeographed pre-test copy. The test subjects read the mimeographed pre-test copy. The test subjects can then be questioned as to their reactions, and as to what they understand and remember of what they have read. Absurd recall errors are often forthcoming from such testing, and it is usually a simple matter to see where the publication lacks emphasis, or is unclear, or otherwise needs improvement.

Other pre-test techniques can be applied to title and cover design. Several cover designs can be placed on a table and representative subjects asked to choose the one that most attracts them. Similarly, test subjects can be asked to tell what they think the material is about on the basis of the cover, and if they would be interested in reading it. Revision would accordingly be based on the answers. One warning: if differing titles are being tested, keep the rest of the covers the same. Similarly, if cover design is being tested, keep the titles on all versions the same.

Pre-test techniques, of course, are numerous, and their nature depends largely on the factors you wish to test. The Burma Translation Society is planning an extensive pre-test of two booklets, both on the same subject, but one using a story-type presentation and the other a straight advice (prescription-type) presentation. Copies of one booklet will be distributed to every household of one village, and copies of the other to every household of a second village.

Interviewers will return after several days to ask what was done with the booklets, who read them, who did not, and what was remembered by those who read the booklets. Results will then be studied to see which style obtained greatest readership, which communicated most clearly (as evidenced by ideas remembered by those who read the booklets), and so on. Results will be specifically useful in preparing the final edition of the booklet, and will also be significant in generalizing as to the type of presentation that is most effective.

Post-testing

Another method of measuring reading interest is to test actual magazine, newspaper, or book purchasers and subscribers to see what portion of the material is read and what portion is not, which ideas are remembered and which are not. In this way,

it is possible to establish certain priorities of interest in terms of what is read and what is retained.

The Magazine Section of the Burma Translation Society has been experimenting with a questionnaire included in each magazine asking the reader to check against a list of articles which appear in the magazine. A respondent may check 'Yes' against articles he enjoys and 'No' against articles he does not enjoy. The card is self-addressed and stamped so as to make its return as simple as possible. This method has the advantage in that it is simple and requires the minimum administrative staff.

It is limited, however, in that the respondents are only those who wish to respond. There is thus an automatic selection. Since only a small number of readers take the trouble of sending back such a card it must be assumed that they are those readers who are especially interested in the magazine (or, in a small percentage of cases, readers who are particularly disgruntled in some way or another).

Secondly, such a study lacks validity also because the respondents may not have read all the articles they check. Many respondents check all articles on the list as 'like' or 'dislike', yet it is possible that they did not read every article. Only a personal interview of an extended nature can determine which articles have been read by the respondent and which he is thus qualified to comment on.

The third limitation of such mail questionnaires involving categories of 'like' and 'dislike' is that the information may be misinterpreted, since there are many factors in liking and disliking a piece of printed material, including feelings towards the author, inability to read the text with full comprehension, lack of proper organization of the content, and other factors not dependent on the theme itself.

Long-term effectiveness of any communication programme can be measured only by observing changes that occur in the lives of the audience. Very few studies of this nature can be made by the publishing concerns. Educational groups with workers in the field, however, might well measure their programme as a whole from time to time in order to determine what changes in opinion, attitude, and action have taken place as a result of the educational programme. Social surveys are not a one-time operation. Such surveys are needed in the early stages of a communication or education programme to establish the needs, interests, and patterns of thinking of the intended audience, and are needed at intervals to measure the success of the programme in raising social, civic, economic and cultural competencies.

CHAPTER IX

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION READING MATERIALS¹

Much of the work of producing literature for new literates has been guided by assumptions derived from the previous experience of workers engaged in this task. Publishers tend to have an empirical approach: if the books sell then the reader's needs are met; educationalists may assume that if the books can be read they can be understood. These assumptions are today being challenged and the whole question of communication through print to new literates is the cause of concern to many governments. Dr. Spaulding has specialized in this field of investigating the effectiveness of fundamental education reading materials and his summary of the results of a project of evaluation and research is included here as one of the technical papers relevant to the subject of this book.

The investigation was undertaken in August-September 1952, in six regions—three in Costa Rica and three in Mexico.

It should be noted that Dr. Spaulding's investigation is limited to the educational effectiveness of the materials studied; this is in line with the method of work of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press, which does not have to take into account the sales appeal of its publications. Investigation is still needed as an aid to publishing materials that will not only be effective educationally but arouse the kind of response that results in the new literate being willing to buy the publications at prices adequate to cover cost of production and distribution. This end result is probably desired by most of the agencies engaged in production for new literates and Dr. Spaulding refers to the need of investigation of this kind in his paper appearing on pages 237. C.G.R.

METHOD OF STUDY

Survey of reading interests expressed by beginner readers in Costa Rica and Mexico—an examination of the relationship between

1. Summary of an unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, entitled 'An Investigation of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of Fundamental Education Reading Materials for Latin American Adults', by SETH SPAULDING, Ohio State University, 1953.

- expressed reading interests and the age, sex, education and occupation of respondents.
- Reading comprehension tests—the success of beginner readers in understanding material of varied context, style and structure examined in order to discover factors determining the effectiveness of materials prepared for this type of reader.
- Tests on pictorial illustrations—accuracy of beginner readers in interpreting different kinds of illustrations, with and without captions, examined in order to discover factors determining effectiveness of illustrative material for this type of reader.
- Survey of teaching methods employed by teachers and extension specialists when using reading materials in classes and groups—to establish the extent to which teacher utilization may influence effectiveness of material.
- Survey of teachers' reactions to type of reading materials most adaptable for use by beginner readers to determine the accuracy with which teachers can estimate the abilities and interests of the readers.

MATERIALS TESTED

The booklets were prepared by the Latin American Fundamental Education Press, and comprised two in the civics series, four in the health series, two in the recreation series, and three in the economic and social series. The survey was carried out among 618 beginner readers—342 in Costa Rica and 276 in Mexico.

The following is an English translation of the first part of the questionnaire filled in by respondents after reading one of the booklets in a class or discussion group; some help was given by the teachers in explaining how to fill in the form.

'Dear Reader,

This booklet was written for you. We hope that it will be useful. We want our booklets to be useful to your friends also. You can help us if you tell us what you think about the booklet. Answer the questions below, writing an $\times$ in one of the squares after each question:

Write the name of this booklet.

Were you interested in what the booklet has to say?

(very much) (little) (none)

Did you understand what the booklet says?

(very much) (little) (none)

THE PROVISION OF POPULAR READING MATERIALS

Did you like the drawings?

(very much) (little) (none)

What other things would you like to read about?

I should like to read about:

taking care of health ☐

producing better crops ☐

improving the house ☐

legends ☐

history (i.e. stories) ☐

.....

.....

.....

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The order of preference in the two countries was as follows.

Costa Rica. 1. History (stories); 2. Health; 3. Home; 4. Crops; 5. Legends.

Mexico. 1. History (stories); 2. Health; 3. Home; 4. Legends; 5. Crops.

The two reasons for the low rating of 'crops' were the large proportion of women among the respondents and the small number of farmers in the Mexican groups. An analysis of the women's responses shows the following results: health, 24 per cent; home, 24 per cent; history, 20 per cent; legends, 17 per cent; crops, 14 per cent.

While the check-type responses showed a fairly widespread interest in recreational reading, the 'write-in' responses—which covered a vast range of interests—showed a consistent preference for material related to the occupations and daily activities of the respondents.

Personal or family welfare (women) and occupational advancement (men) seem to provide the greatest motivation for reading among respondents, especially those with a very limited amount of education. A preference for recreational reading was found more

ésta es tu Biblioteca Popular...

1



Plate V. The complete set of publications of the Latin American Fundamental Education Press.



BOLÍVAR ENTRÓ EN BOGOTÁ

Plate VI. A rich effect may be given by the addition of one colour to black and white illustrations. This example is from *Simon Bolívar*, published by the Latin American Fundamental Education Press.

frequently among readers of a higher educational level, and therefore with more advanced reading ability, than among the very new literates.

INDIVIDUAL COMPREHENSION TESTS

Procedure

1. The reader reads the booklet aloud; the teacher notes the words causing recognition difficulty.
 2. The reader is then asked to tell all he remembers about the people, places and happenings in the story; the results are tabulated according to number and accuracy of ideas recalled.
 3. Specific questions are asked about basic information appearing in the booklet.
 4. A simple vocabulary test is given. Words causing difficulty in recognition are added to existing vocabulary list.
- In order to assess the value of illustrations in helping readers to understand and remember a text, the tests were given from specially constructed books, one-half of the books containing illustrations and the others without.

Owing to the length of time involved in these individual tests, only 102 were given. For some books, only one person was tested for the illustrated and one for the non-illustrated test. Only the broadest conclusions can therefore be drawn from these tests. These are incorporated in the following summary of this chapter.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

General

The principal generalizations based on the results of the individual comprehension tests are:

1. Booklets for use by adult beginner readers in Latin America should be illustrated. Readers of eight of the eleven booklets remembered more when reading the illustrated version than when reading the non-illustrated version.
2. Illustrations should be realistic in style. Two of the three booklets which fared as well in the non-illustrated tests as in the illustrated tests were booklets that used non-realistic drawings.
3. There is little relationship between the expressed liking for illustrations and their value in helping the reader to understand

- the text. Expressed affinity alone is a poor indicator of the effectiveness of the illustration as a communication medium.
4. Booklets with high readability ratings scored poorly in terms of idea-recall. Results of the idea-recall tests indicate that material with a readability rating above 60 is too difficult for adult beginners in Latin America.
 5. Even though the material is structurally easy to read, if it contains a large number of ideas it may be difficult for adult beginner readers. The total number of ideas should be kept to the minimum for maximum effectiveness.
 6. Excessive detail may tend to mislead since the beginner is usually not capable of judging the relative significance of each idea. All ideas mentioned tend to be considered of equal importance; therefore excessive detail may tend to smother the significant portions of the text.
 7. Questions to be included as a teaching device must be constructed with care. Many of the questions used in the testing were ambiguous and allowed of conflicting correct answers.
 8. The background of the readers influenced their comprehension as follows: women received higher comprehension scores than men; farmers and skilled workers received higher comprehension scores than unskilled workers; of the age-groups consisting of enough cases to assume valid results, the group of readers above 25 years of age fared slightly better than the group below 25; readers with two to four years of schooling received higher scores on the average than readers with zero to two years of schooling; readers indicating five or more years of schooling showed no higher scores than the two to four year group.

Effective Illustrations

The same criteria have to be applied to illustrations as to reading matter: they should be simple, lively, concerned with people, and related to the background of the reader for easy comprehension. The idea illustrated should be significant enough to demand illustration (it may need emphasis because of its importance, or clarification because of its newness to the reader).

Study of previous illustration research should be made and of children's or adults' colour preferences. Beginner readers may often be unfamiliar with any kind of illustration and therefore have difficulty in relating the drawn symbol to the visual object represented. In research on eye movements the most significant part of the picture should generally be placed to the centre or upper left.

There were two aims in the field investigation: to compare interpretative responses in order to determine effective elements in terms of content, style, colour and other internal factors; to compare responses to the same illustration with and without its caption in order to determine effect of caption. Ninety-eight respondents were tested on the illustrations of one of the twelve booklets, with or without captions; three types of illustration were tested: (a) woodcuts (*San Martin, Trabajamos Juntos, Defiende tu Suelo*); (b) stylized (*Quexalcoatl*); (c) realistic line drawings (the rest).

The conclusions that can be drawn from the study of illustrations are as follows:

1. Illustrations aid in the comprehension of the booklets. (With some booklets up to an average of 13.6 more information was remembered by readers reading a booklet with illustrations than by those reading it without.)
2. The most realistic drawings were preferred to woodcuts and stylized illustrations.
3. Illustrations must be constructed in terms of past experiences of the proposed audience. (Respondents in the study tended to identify unfamiliar objects with ones known, e.g., in *Abraham Lincoln*, the Capitol Building in Washington was interpreted as 'palace' and 'church'. A river barge loaded with pigs, a 'pig-pen'. Entirely unfamiliar objects were often ignored altogether.)
4. Extraneous material in an illustration confuses; only elements necessary for communicating concept should be used. (Beginner readers were not adept at distinguishing the important from the unimportant and read meaning into all portions of illustrations.)
5. One-colour illustrations tend to cause confusion if applied to an object not usually that colour. (There was some bewilderment caused by green fire, green chickens, etc.)
6. Physical conditions must be emphasized if a value judgement is to be communicated. Conditions of poverty, dirt or illness may not be interpreted as such unless the illustration of the condition is exaggerated (Dirty, crowded living quarters were often interpreted as 'normal conditions').
7. Exaggeration is often necessary to distinguish age groups, e.g., boys from men.
8. The unknown can be identified by the use of visual clues, e.g., milk can and cows to distinguish milk from water; rope and bucket to indicate a well, etc.
9. Captions help to correct interpretation. (They also occasionally caused some confusion; sometimes words addressed to the reader were interpreted as part of the conversation of characters depicted.)

The Use of Booklets and Teacher Comments

This survey covered 29 teachers from Costa Rica and 33 from Mexico. Two types of information were obtained from the teachers questioned: (a) the teaching methods used when the booklets were presented in adult education classes and the extension groups; and (b) the reactions of the teachers to the booklets, with their suggestions for improvements.

The teachers' observation sheets covered the following reports: how the booklet was read (orally, silently, by teacher); type of discussion or explanation before, during or after reading; interest of class expressed before reading and during reading and discussion; physical conditions affecting reading.

In Costa Rica the usual class procedure was silent reading, followed by discussion based on questions brought up by group; in Mexico, oral reading followed by questions from the teacher was generally preferred.

It was found that very few teachers followed advice given in the booklets for conducting reading and discussion groups (although most teachers favoured the inclusion of such advice sections). The poor lighting conditions were frequently remarked upon.

The questionnaire requested teachers to give their opinions concerning the following: the topics preferred by the readers with whom the teacher had worked; the vocabulary list at the end of each booklet; the questions at the end of each booklet; exercises that should be included in the booklet; the introduction and instructions for the teacher that appear in each booklet; colour and style of illustrations; length of booklets; readers' comprehension of booklets; size of type in general presentation; the teaching charts; the individual comprehension tests; the need for continuing work with reading materials in the locality; interest shown by the readers; changes needed in the booklet.

To questions relating to the interests and the comprehension of readers, the teachers' responses agreed fairly closely with the responses obtained directly from readers. This would indicate that the teachers' opinions can be regarded as a fairly reliable index to the interests and abilities of readers.

Nearly all the teachers favoured the inclusion of the vocabulary list. It was suggested that vocabulary lists should be illustrated and that explanations should appear on the page in which the word was used. Most teachers found the questions at the end of the booklet useful and necessary.

A few teachers suggested completion tests. Some felt that written exercises would help in teaching writing simultaneously with read-

ing. Some thought that the questions should be related more specifically to the problems of the community.

It was considered that material for the teacher tacked on to the end of the booklet might confuse the reader. Explanatory material for the teacher should be kept to a minimum; any details should be included in a separate publication or in a teachers' edition of the booklet.

On the whole, teachers' comments corroborated the findings of the study on illustrations described above.

Two of the booklets, *San Martin* and *Abraham Lincoln* were generally considered too long for the elementary level. It was also felt that the advice sections in two other booklets made them too long and too difficult.

Considerable enthusiasm was generally shown for the manner of presentation, but the type in the advice sections was considered to be too small and also in the printed questionnaire forms.

The teachers felt that since each individual comprehension test took so much time not enough could be given.

The investigation elicited the following generalizations on the evaluation of reading materials:

Beginner readers in Costa Rica and Mexico have very often had few other reading materials with which to compare publications. Their judgements as to interest in what they had read are therefore not necessarily valid. Similarly, their own evaluation of comprehension may well be inaccurate.

Simple comprehension interviews requiring no writing are probably the most effective device for assessing difficulty levels.

However, such interviews involve a longer period for the research operation and require well-trained personnel if the procedure is to be standardized and the results properly tabulated.

Teachers and extension workers who are in constant contact with the readers can generally give a reliable evaluation of material.

Further study in the preparation of vocabulary lists should be undertaken by educators with a view to including words necessary for communicating educational ideas and words relevant to specific subjects. Research is needed to discover the extent to which people with limited formal education can comprehend abstractions and absorb ideas.

CHAPTER X

AN EXPERIMENT TO ASSESS THE VILLAGER'S UNDERSTANDING OF BOOK ILLUSTRATIONS¹

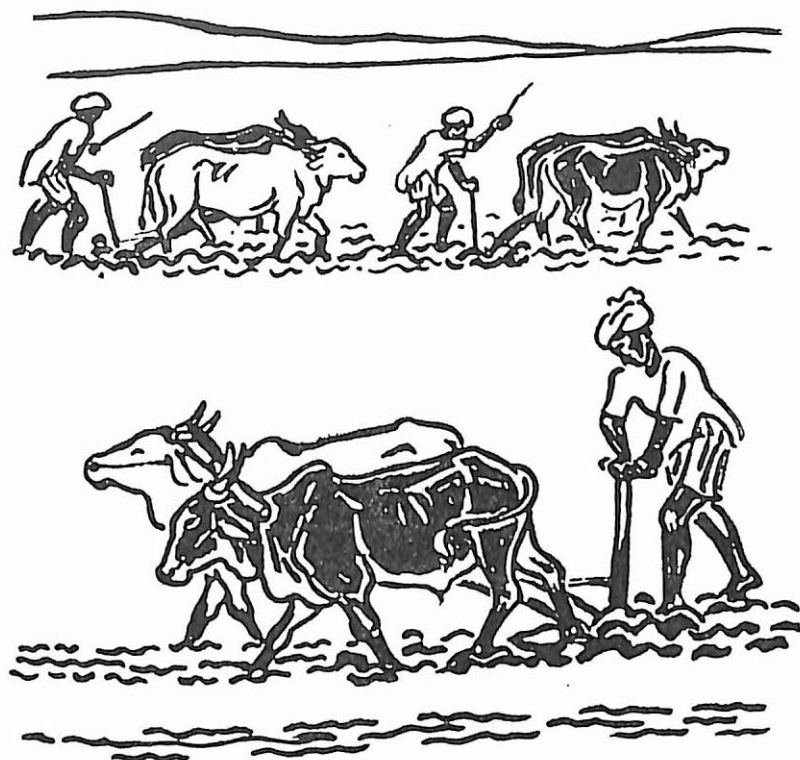
All who are engaged in the production of books for new literates have to face the problem of illustration. This problem is often complicated by the fact that they are specialists from a foreign country or are educationally advanced far beyond the level of the people among whom they are working. It is therefore important that preconceived views be set aside and attempts made to study the effect of different styles of illustration. In the experiment made in Mysore the investigating team took pains to divest their minds of prejudice and worked out a method with a variety of approaches. It is to be regretted that they had so little time at their disposal, because as they have stated (see page 265) they learnt the necessity of first gaining the confidence and interest of the villagers; workers in such conditions know that an abrupt approach produces results of dubious value or none at all, since there is no time for surprise, confusion and doubt to give place to confidence in the investigations and interest in the subjects of study. C.G.R.

INITIAL CONSIDERATIONS

During the month of May, Mr. Hebbar, a well-known Indian artist from Bombay, was working with the literacy team in illustrating their Primers I and II.

For Primer I, in which only 199 words are introduced, the artist naturally had difficulty in illustrating some of the sentences, which did not depict any action. The teaching method used was the global method. In this method new letters are introduced only in new word-sentence combinations. It was felt, therefore, and the artist agreed, that an attempt should be made to find out how far the villagers were able to understand his illustrations. The team was specially concerned about this as its members had discovered in February that villagers who had attended the Adult Education Council's class, had had difficulty in understanding certain comprehension tests because of the drawings included in them. In addition, the artist intended to use one colour in addition to the

1. Undertaken by the Group Training Scheme for Fundamental Education, Mysore.



ಬೇಗ ಬೇಗ ಊರ ಜನರು ಹೊಲವ ಉತ್ತರು

Fig. 19. Mr. Hebbar's illustrations for the Unesco Group Training Scheme's second primer are in monochrome. (See Plate VIII for one of the illustrations in two colours from the first primer.)

K. S. Karanth, *The Village that God Blessed*, Yelwal, Mysore, Unesco Group Training Scheme for Fundamental Education, 1954.

black and white drawings and therefore he wanted to know villagers' tastes and preferences for colours. It was doubted whether there would be any uniform preferences for a particular colour but, according to a report on literacy issued by the Organization of American States, research in Latin America had indicated that the addition of one colour hindered comprehension of drawings.¹

PREPARATIONS FOR THE EXPERIMENT

Selection of Subjects

A question which arises for all new 'projects' had first to be answered: Where was the experiment to be carried out?

First it was hoped to find a village near the team's headquarters. The team therefore went to Yelwal to do a preliminary experiment with two illustrations in black and white and corresponding pictures in orange wash. It managed to interview six people, but found that for further experimenting in this village it would be too difficult to arrange for personal interviews.

Again it had to be borne in mind that in the early monsoon season villagers were working in their fields from morning till evening. There was only one solution; to go to a village where the team could stay for four or five days, so as to be present whenever a villager could spare the time to answer questions.

On 5 May the team went to Dadadakallahalli. This village had two advantages: first an extensive basic survey had been carried out there for about two months, so that a guide was available for selecting representative villagers for the experiment. Secondly the school building in the village, where nearly all members of the training scheme had often stayed was still equipped with cooking facilities.

Selection of Pictures

Mr. Hebbar at first asked that only the drawings in which he had had difficulty in illustrating a sentence should be shown. In a discussion with him, however, it was pointed out that recognition of a single picture was very different from understanding a sequence of illustrations, particularly if the latter had captions. So he agreed that a sequence of drawings should also be tried out.

First, for this experiment on the sequence of illustrations, it was

1. See Chapter IX.

decided to take thirteen of Mr. Hebbar's drawings. Secondly, to see if colour helped or hindered understanding, the team selected eight more of his drawings, which corresponded to four of the black and white drawings in the sequence, except that they were coloured either with orange or green wash. Thirdly, in order to discover the villagers' preferences as between two different styles of art, the team included in the selection of pictures for this project two drawings by a local artist, Sri Guru, who normally works for the Adult Education Council in Mysore. His drawings were naturalistic and photographically accurate. The two pictures chosen illustrated the same sentences as those illustrated by Mr. Hebbar. The purpose of this experiment was to see whether the villagers preferred the 'photographic' drawings of the local artist or the artistic style of Mr. Hebbar.

Instructions

In drawing up the instructions for the experiment it had to be borne in mind that the illustrations to be presented to the villagers would later have captions printed underneath. The experiment was therefore broken down into two parts: the first dealt with the assessment of individual pictures (including colour preferences, and preferences between two different styles of art), and the second with the assessment of pictures in sequence.

Part I: Assessment of individual pictures. (a) For the pictures in black and white: Each picture was presented first without comment; if there was no response from the subject, he or she was asked 'What does this picture show?'; every word was noted down (this process also gave the people interviewed the opportunity to get acquainted with the pictures and was thus valuable as an introduction to the second part of the experiment). (b) For the pictures in orange and in green: If no correct answer was given to the black and white picture, the corresponding pictures in colour were shown (first the orange one then the green one); then the coloured pictures were compared with the black and white one, with the question 'Which picture do you like best?'; the two remaining pictures were then to be compared again, by asking the same question. (c) For the pictures drawn by the local artist: If there was no correct response to Mr. Hebbar's coloured picture, then Mr. Guru's picture was shown. After this, Mr. Guru's picture was compared with the corresponding black and white one drawn by Mr. Hebbar, again with the question 'Which picture do you like best?'

Part II: Assessment of pictures in sequence. The story was narrated with all the captions in sequence. Afterwards all the pictures were put before the subject, always in the same disorder 10, 9, 5, 6, 1, 2, 4, 12, 13, 7, 8, 11, so that pictures which the villagers had more difficulty in recognizing were mixed up with the other ones. The subject was then asked: 'Please tell us which picture belongs to which sentence of the story I just told you'. If the subject took too long in picking up a picture or if the pictures were quite wrongly interpreted, the story was told again, as often as necessary.

The problem here was to prevent the factor of intelligence from being too dominant. To minimize this factor the villagers were not asked to put the picture in a sequence according to the story (as is usually done in an established picture-sequence test), but rather to pick out the drawings which corresponded to sentences from the story which they remembered. And for this reason also the team decided to tell the story as often as necessary.

ANALYSIS

It would be wrong to attempt any quantitative analysis of such a limited experiment, so the discussion which follows is confined to the more obvious facts deduced from the responses in the two parts of the project.

In Part I (a) three of the pictures in black and white did not elicit an adequate description from the people interviewed. The pictures all illustrated an empty 'tank' (pond) and barren fields.

In Part I (b) the interviews in Dadadakallahalli brought to light no evidence as to whether colour helped or hindered understanding, since the pictures presented in colour were already understood in black and white. This, however, differed from the preliminary experiment in Yelwal, where four out of the six persons interviewed gave more correct descriptions of the coloured drawings than of the black and white ones. The question as to colour preference could not however be answered satisfactorily because of the limited number of subjects interviewed. Some preferred the drawings with the orange and some with the green wash. The reason they gave, 'It looks much nicer', was not very satisfactory, and it is rather doubtful whether a larger number of responses would have solved the problem.

In Part I (c) the response concerning the preference between two different styles of art showed that a majority of the subjects preferred Mr. Hebbar's drawings to those drawn by Sri Guru. The team had been inclined to think that the villagers' preference

would be for naturalistic drawings, because in each village house there were photographs of people or very naturalistic drawings representing their gods or goddesses. So this result was surprising.

In Part II, because of the accompanying story, the interpretations given by the subjects improved. But even then, there were no correct answers to the three pictures mentioned already in the evaluation of Part I (a).

A serious limitation was imposed on the evaluation by the small number of subjects interviewed. But at least the team was able to make two recommendations to the artist:

1. The three pictures which illustrated the tank and the barren fields had to be changed and drawn more naturalistically.
2. The drawings for the first two captions had to be exchanged. The first picture represented 'a poor village' and the second 'a very poor village': The former showed houses only while the latter showed also poorly dressed people at work. In Part II, however, villagers related the second picture to the caption of the first one, giving the reason that a village was more wealthy if there were more people living in it and all were working.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Regarding the Performance

Naturally the team tried to perform the experiment on all subjects under similar conditions. But, as was mentioned earlier in the monsoon season it was difficult to get a villager who was genuinely interested to co-operate. Thus the team had to go from house to house to see if somebody would be willing to answer the questions. This undertaking was quite successful with the people of the upper castes, but not possible with the Untouchables (sub-caste: Adidra-vida), because the Kannada-speaking student who was leading the discussion with the villagers was a Brahmin—the highest Hindu caste. If he entered the houses of the Untouchables, he would have had difficulty in being accepted again by the higher caste people. Therefore the team had to ask the people to come to the school building.

Different experiences resulted from attempts at interviewing women. First the team went to a house where an 18-year-old unmarried girl was living (it was an exceptional case, since girls generally get married when they are 14 or 15 years old). Because she was single, her brother (in this case the father was dead) was responsible for her. When he heard that the team wanted to

interview his sister, he prohibited her from sitting or even standing beside a male student and in the end the team left the house without any result. At another house, the husband refused permission, so the help of a lady teacher from the literacy team was obtained. When she came, at once the whole situation changed; all the village women were allowed to co-operate. In the first interview with a village woman, the team saw the difference between the position of the women in the village and that of men. Respect forbids women and children to listen to an interview held with men. But when a woman invited the team to her house, a crowd of children and women followed so closely that the door could not be shut before five or six of them had got in. So the team always had to rush into the house and bolt the door before anybody could follow. At first the woman's shyness had to be overcome. The first reaction to the questions: 'Did she want to see some pictures?' and 'Would she answer some questions?', was hesitation. All the women gave the answer: 'I am only a woman, I am not educated, how can I answer your question?' And each time the team pointed to the pictures of gods on the wall and asked: 'What is this, isn't it a picture?'—'What do you see in this picture?'—'Now, look, we will show you just the same, we will show you some pictures'. So the team convinced the women that they were just as able as the men to answer our questions. After this prejudice was broken down they were always willing to co-operate.

These were examples of experiences in interviewing villagers. Members of the team learned from them that they could have interviewed more people with less disturbance if they had stayed in the village a week before, or at least visited it each day during the week. The villagers had to get used to the team and the team to their personal daily time-table.

Regarding the Method Applied

It seemed that the splitting of the experiment into two parts was instructive. It was a great help for the subjects to get acquainted with the pictures separately, so that they were later more interested in finding the right pictures to fit the sentences.

Concerning the study of colour preferences, as well as the problem whether colour helps or hinders understanding, it would seem better to have separate projects. It would also be advisable to interview a stratified sample of 15-20 villagers in four or five representative villages of the area for which the book was meant. The number of villagers might vary, according to the subject illustrated

and the villagers' experience of illustrations. The following suggestions are made for further studies of this kind:

1. For understanding of book illustrations: a sequence of 12 pictures should be selected. This is a sufficient number and does not impose too much effort on the subject. The instructions of Parts I (a) and II could be applied. For the selection of subjects it would be of great help to discover beforehand the intelligence level of the villagers to be interviewed.
2. For the assessment of colour preference in book illustrations, one would need to take a sequence of 12 coloured illustrations, because the topic of the coloured drawings may influence the colour preference. Here one could tell the story and present the pictures at the same time. The subjects would have to choose and to give the reason why they preferred the orange, green, etc., in the sequence of coloured pictures.
3. To discover whether colour helps or hinders understanding, it would be preferable to take two or three sequences of black and white pictures, and their corresponding coloured ones, which illustrated different topics. These pictures should have been tried out beforehand if they included any drawings which the villagers might have difficulty in describing. They would be shown to the subjects—after telling the story—one after the other in disorder, which should be the same for each subject. In case any subject could not describe a picture correctly in the black and white version then the coloured one should be shown. The result would answer the question whether colour helps understanding. The experiment would have to be reversed to find out whether colour hinders understanding, i.e., the coloured picture should be shown first.
4. For assessing understanding of different artistic styles, the experiment could be carried out in the same way as described above. It would be preferable to have sequences of 12 pictures in three or four different artistic styles.

CHAPTER XI

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE USE OF WORD COUNTS¹

The value of word-frequency counts now seems to be taken for granted. It is even said that satisfactory material for new literates cannot be produced without them. Their value for certain purposes and in certain circumstances cannot be denied. But before submitting completely to the rule of a system, which could become a tyranny, it might be well to consider some of its limitations.

In the first place, it is necessary to examine the conditions under which the material is to be prepared, and the purpose in view. If you are dealing with a language which has already an established literature and the sole intention is to enable your pupil to read that literature, whether or not it has a close relation to his language of common speech, then clearly there is everything to be said for the system. Elaborate word lists have been prepared in a number of languages, based on millions of words in existing texts, giving the commonest first thousand, second thousand, and so on, thereby enabling the author to grade his lessons with great accuracy and introduce the student, by carefully regulated stages, to the entire field of existing literature in the language.

If, on the other hand, the intention is to teach an adult to read a written form of the language he actually speaks, particularly in the case of languages which are spoken rather than written, or where the written form is different from the spoken, any word list based on the existing literature is irrelevant. As the literature was not itself based on an oral word count it will not necessarily contain the words best known to the illiterate. The purpose in this case is not primarily to enable him to read the existing literature, but to prepare the literature itself which he is to read, based on the language he already knows and speaks. If this is the object in view, it is not, strictly speaking, enough to say that a word list on which to base the vocabulary of reading material for newly literate adults should be drawn from oral as well as written sources. It must be an oral word count or nothing.

1. Prepared by RUPERT EAST, Unesco consultant on reading material for new literates.

But a true oral word count is a very difficult thing to make. To carry it out scientifically would involve the recording of a very large number of unrehearsed conversations between people in different walks of life, on a variety of different subjects, in a multitude of circumstances. Anything short of this must depend largely on guesswork. As this is virtually impossible, a method has been recommended by Dr. Laubach, which can however only be considered as a compromise. This consists in collecting word lists compiled by missionaries and other foreigners and submitting them to a panel of ten illiterates, of different sexes and age groups, and inviting them to vote on the comprehensibility of each word. The list is then compiled in accordance with their votes.

This system was used in an attempt to make a word-frequency count for Twi on the Gold Coast in 1953. The original list in this case was based on a selection from existing written materials. It was then submitted to two language experts, who revised and amplified it in the light of their experience of the spoken vocabulary of illiterates in the region. Finally it was submitted to a panel, as described above.

But however much care be taken, and however useful the results in other ways, none of this satisfies the definition of a genuine oral word count. The purpose of the word list, for the preparation of which the count is made, is said to be 'the control of vocabulary, which otherwise depends on the arbitrary and subjective judgement of writer or editor'. Yet if the original word list is based on unwritten materials, these were themselves presumably compiled according to the author's arbitrary judgement.

Secondly, it may be said that many of the commonest words in a language which is essentially spoken rather than literary are those used round and about the home—the 'language of the cooking-pots' as it has been called. If, as often happens, the word list is being prepared or revised by a foreign expert, or even by a highly educated member of the same language group, these words may not appear on the short list at all. In the case of the foreigner, this is because, however great his knowledge of the language, they are usually the last words he learns. It is only when he has penetrated into the inner recesses of family life that he comes to appreciate their importance. In the case of the educated native speaker, it is because he has long grown out of this humble speech.

Finally, with regard to the system of selection by the vote of a panel, the objection can still be made that the list was compiled by 'arbitrary and subjective judgement'. In this case it was the judgement of the language experts and panel of illiterates, instead of that of the writer or author. A further practical difficulty in

applying this method is that to get an unbiased opinion from illiterates in this type of community, it would be necessary to go through the list with each individual in isolation; otherwise they would be influenced by each other. It would, in any case, be unnatural for the women and younger members to express a view contrary to that of the men or older members of the panel.

In compiling a basic word list suitable for general use, there is also the problem of the difference in vocabulary spoken by the various sections of the community, especially noticeable among undeveloped peoples, between the different age grades and between the sexes. To take an extreme case, a primitive African agricultural tribe has names for no less than 80 different shapes and varieties of the yam (their staple food), of which quite a number are in common use, but *only among the women*. The men, whose interest in the subject is less specialized, know only a few. On the other hand, the range of the men's vocabulary in their own subjects—hunting, tools, crafts, games, tribal lore, masculine cults, and so forth—is naturally greater than that of the women. The same is true for the young men and the old. It may be objected, of course, that where a basic vocabulary is concerned, there should be no great difficulty in finding a common denominator. This may doubtless be true for the first 500 words or so; after that, you are bound to run into difficulties.

The greatest care must be taken to ensure that the word list is applicable to the particular district in which it is being used. Illiteracy is usually at its highest in undeveloped areas where there are poor communications, little intercourse among the neighbouring peoples and insularity of outlook. This, in turn, nearly always means a multiplicity of dialects, or, where the language is basically the same over a fair-sized area, a large variety of local names for the same thing. A curious but very important point for the purpose in view, is that the words which usually differ most between one group and the next are the names for the commonest things in everyday use. They therefore inevitably appear near the top of every word list and in the first pages of the primer and elementary reader. Such are names of fruits, domestic animals, the staple food or drink, tools, pots, common articles of clothing and so on. Note, moreover, that an error in the transcription of one of these terms will make a much worse impression than in the case of a less common word. The smallest difference in form or usage will appear grotesque and laughable. What is to be thought of a person who sets out to teach you something in your own language and doesn't even know the proper word for a banana?

Some of these lists may contain strange anomalies. One day of

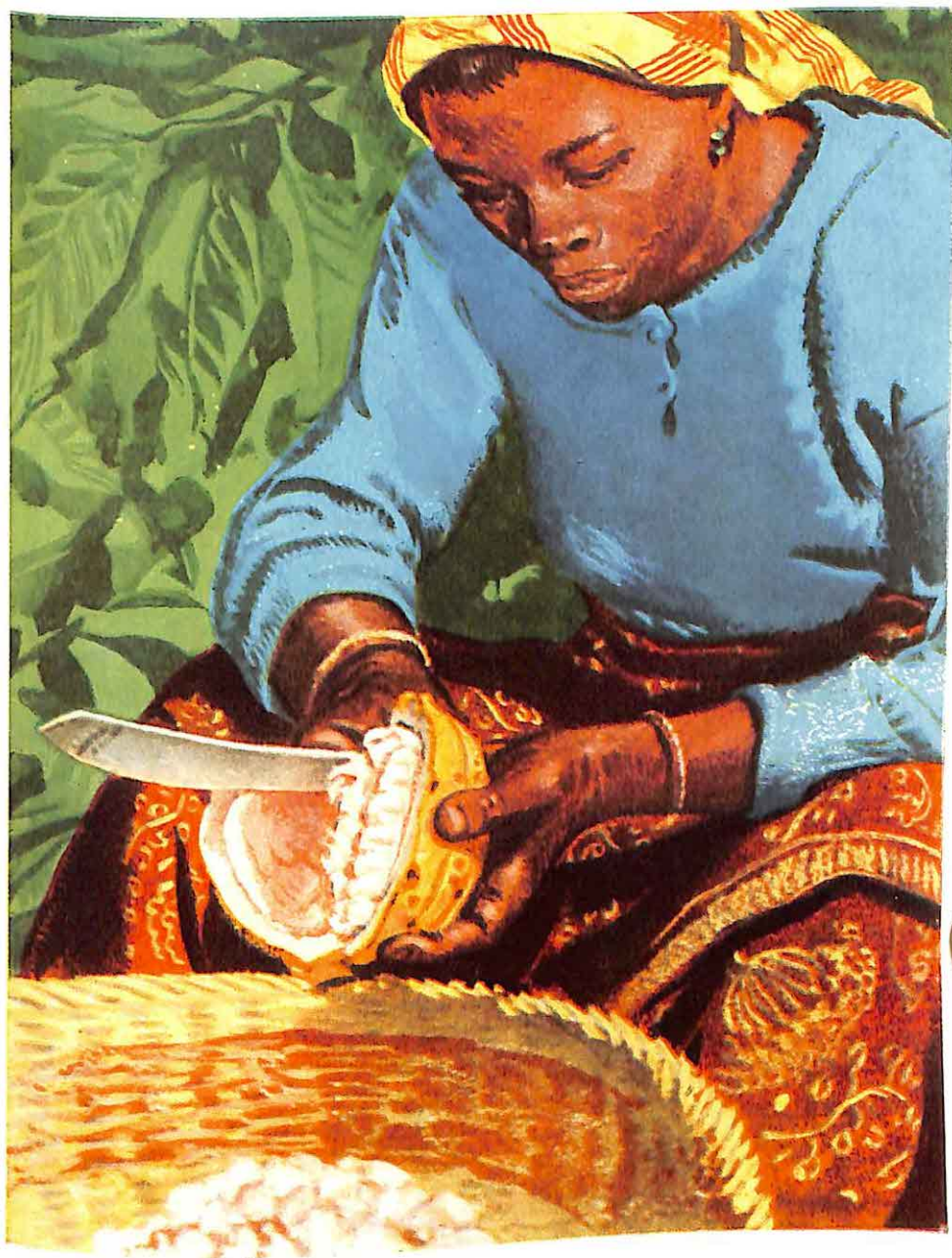


Plate VII. A full-colour illustration from *Kofi, The Good Farmer*, published by the Gold Coast (now Ghana) Public Relations Department in 1950.



ಕೊಟ್ಟ ಬೀಜ, ಮಣ್ಣು ಹಿಡಿದು ಗೌಡ ಊರಿಗೆ ಬಂದ

Plate VIII. One of Mr. Hebbar's illustrations for the first primer published by the Unesco Group Training School for Fundamental Education, Mysore, in 1954.

the week or name of a month may appear in a list of the commonest words and other days or months not. This is bound to happen, if the list is based entirely on the frequency count, whether of oral or written material, unless of infinite scope, and merely indicates that the number of words of which the count was made was not large enough. But whereas the absurdity of this particular instance is manifest, and the list can be 'adjusted' to conceal the error, it throws suspicion on the rest of the results. If Wednesday gets in but not Thursday, how can we be certain that any word has a right to inclusion in preference to another word in the same class?

It might be said in defence of the system (though this view does not seem to be held by its protagonists) that the basic list is not meant to contain all the commonest words, but only a selection of them sufficient for composing elementary reading matter, and that the main purpose of it is to *exclude* the *uncommon* words. This seems an easier basis to work on. But it is still not satisfactory, for the same difficulties of selection and exclusion remain.

Attacking the question from the opposite angle, one may ask whether the frequency of a word in common speech is indeed the best criterion on which to base its readability in a text. It is necessary to draw a sharp distinction between this type of word list and one which is compiled for the purpose of writing books to teach a foreign language. In the latter case, the spoken vocabulary of the reader is presumed to be very limited. But with regard to material prepared for a new literate in his own language the case is quite different. He already has a large spoken vocabulary, far larger than will appear in any basic word list, and the question arises whether words which have failed on a frequency count to get into the list, but which he knows equally well, though for various reasons may not use so often, are necessarily more difficult for him to decipher when he meets them on the written page.

Of course, the use of a restricted vocabulary is essential in the primer and preliminary reader, in order that the learner may become familiar with a few words at a time and not be presented too suddenly with a mass of fresh material beyond his capacity to assimilate. But surely for this purpose it is preferable to choose the vocabulary on other grounds than those of frequency in common speech; for example, length, number of consecutive consonants, unambiguity, and the method of teaching employed.

When you are teaching adults to read their mother tongue, if the orthography is not based on phonetic principles—as is the case with English and, to a much lesser extent, French—it is doubtless advisable to restrict the vocabulary even after the initial stages, and to increase it by carefully regulated steps; because, up

to a point, each new word has to be learnt separately. The same is true of languages written in a script such as the Nastaliq, when reading must be learnt by words and not by letters or syllables. But in a true phonetic script, such as that used for Spanish and many Asiatic and African languages, it is not so necessary. Because, although in the first stages the method preferred may be to teach the reading of whole words rather than by letters or syllables, and in the ultimate stages of literacy the experienced reader will also arrive at the same point, in the intermediate stages, with which we are largely concerned, the learner who has overcome the initial difficulties can quite easily read and recognize words that he has not previously met in written form. It is not essential that he should first 'learn' them.

It is not generally appreciated how large is the vocabulary in common use among people at a low standard of material culture. It was once stated—and the remark is often heard repeated—that the vocabulary generally used by the European peasant only consists of a few hundred words. Whether or not this is true of the European peasant (and *prima facie* it appears most unlikely) it is certainly untrue of primitive peoples such as those found in parts of Africa. (I use the word 'primitive' in the sense applied to art forms rather than social status, i.e., not in the main affected by exterior influences.) In fact, the reverse is often the case. 'Primitive' languages are apt to lack generic terms for classification at least for nouns and descriptive adverbs, but possess a huge number of words and forms in everyday use. Anyone who has lived among these people will testify to the astonishing richness of the language known and used by everyone. Naturally, the language is lacking in scientific and abstract terms, adjectives expressing different shades of colour, feelings, values and so forth, but these in any case would not be included in a basic word list.

Finally, many of the most familiar words in the language, which are known and loved by every member of the community from earliest childhood, would not appear in any word list based on a frequency count of the first few thousand. Such are words which appear in proverbs, riddles, folk-lore, sayings, songs, etc., but *only in their particular context*. These are especially suitable for elementary reading matter, as their familiar sound gives immediate pleasure. Are they to be excluded because they cannot appear in an arbitrary word list based on a frequency count?

Let word lists be made by all means for practical guidance, subject to the qualifications already submitted, and, if needs must, frequency counts; but let them be used with circumspection and plenty of latitude. Above all, let them be the servant of the author, not his master.

PART FIVE

SOME CONCLUSIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER XII

REPORT OF UNESCO REGIONAL MEETING OF EXPERTS¹

INTRODUCTION

In executing Resolution IV.1.4.33¹ adopted by the General Conference of Unesco at its eighth session, the Director-General decided to concentrate activities under the project Reading Materials for New Literates in the period 1955-56 in four countries—Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan.

Training fellowships were offered to the governments of these countries and contracts for the carrying out of studies and experimental activities were passed with agencies and individuals in the area. In order to develop the programme effectively and co-ordinate it with efforts already being made in the region by private and public agencies and to assist in the elaboration of future plans, the Director-General called a regional meeting of experts to advise him on the future of the Unesco project and on what submissions he might make on this subject to the authorities of the Member States concerned.

Four specialists from each participating country were invited as well as the fellows appointed under the project. The Director-General supplied the services of consultants and Secretariat members, as well as working papers, a reference library and an exhibition. The United Nations and other intergovernmental agencies in the region were invited to send observers to the meeting.

NEEDS OF THE AREA

There is need throughout the region for simplified reading material in which careful attention is given to the contents and presentation. These must be related to the various reading ability levels and to the interests of the audiences to be served. The meet-

1. Held at Murree, West Pakistan, from 11 to 18 June 1956.

ing considered that this reading material should aim at enriching the economic, cultural and spiritual life of the people. The countries in the region have launched national plans for the all-round progress of their people, large proportions of whom are illiterate or new literate. The care with which the reading material for the new literate is produced will influence greatly a country's culture, the development of good citizenship, the improvement of crafts, and the proper use of leisure.

The meeting was of the unanimous opinion that there is a great and urgent need for extending and improving the production of reading material ranging from elementary readers to general popular literature. A relatively new type of literature must be produced. Most of the problems involved in the production of such material have not been previously adequately dealt with in the region. In many cases, basic research and experimentation are needed to decide on the most effective approach. Most of the material will have to be specially adapted to a country, a region, or language group.

The meeting stressed that the audience for this type of material is fast expanding and an ever growing demand will have to be met. The meeting strongly believed that the time had come when a major and concentrated effort by both Unesco and national governments was needed to assist in the production of this reading material. The meeting felt that existing agencies are by themselves unequal to this task. Special programmes and methods must be created and employed to meet what is a serious situation.

The meeting considered that the following are the outstanding needs for promoting the production of this reading material: (a) training of specialists in the fields of research, preparation and distribution of reading material; (b) research into the many problems involved in preparation, production and distribution of reading materials; (c) exchange of experience and information through the establishment of clearing house services; (d) the establishment of agencies for the development of the habit of book buying and reading; (e) improvement and extension of promotion and distribution methods and channels; (f) closer co-ordination and co-operation between government, voluntary agencies and publishers; (g) encouragement of authors; (h) encouragement of agencies engaged in the production of reading material; (i) removal of restrictions and tariff barriers affecting the importation of paper, printing supplies and equipment needed for the production of reading materials for the new literate; (j) reduction of postal and freight rates with a view to making a wider distribution of reading material possible and economic.

ACTION REQUIRED TO MEET THESE NEEDS

Training

The meeting felt that a basic need is adequate training of the following personnel:

Authors. It will be necessary not only to locate but also to train authors in the special skills needed for the preparation of simple reading material.

Editors. Editing in specialized fields, e.g., special problems of the new literate, and of periodicals. Competent general editors are also very badly needed in the region. Authors are generally inexperienced and need guidance from editors who will discuss with them the preparation of their manuscripts, outline the organization of the contents, assist in the selection of illustrations, and finally properly edit the manuscripts for publication.

Book designers. One way of encouraging the habit of book reading and buying is through good design. In printing production, book designing means layout and typography. It is the job of the book designer to present effectively and attractively the contents prepared by the author and at the same time to plan the book so that it can be produced within the price range of the intended readership.

Book illustrators. The type of reading material intended for the new literate demands in many cases that it should be illustrated. But to be effective, these illustrations must be carefully planned and executed. Book illustrators must be aware of the intentions of the author, the teaching method used in the book, the intended audience and the printing process to be used, and prepare their illustrations accordingly.

Production specialists. For production planning, administration and planned management, costing and estimating. The production manager is the key figure in the printing of the reading material; he must be able to organize his administration and plan his production on the basis of minimum cost and maximum efficiency. It is the common experience that while modern and efficient printing equipment is available in printing plants of the region, printing management, costing procedures and sound estimating are inadequate. This situation largely accounts for the poor quality and high prices of much of the reading material at present produced in the region.

Publishers. For administration, policies, pricing, market research, promotion, distribution, and sale. Few attempts have been made so far to train publishers. However, the problem here is similar

to other special training problems of the region. An attempt must be made to devise a training course which would provide executives for the publishing industry with the basic skills and knowledge needed for successfully organizing and running a publishing enterprise.

Booksellers. In the last analysis, much of the effectiveness of a commercial distribution system depends on the bookseller. Book-selling is a recognized profession and it is necessary that training facilities for booksellers, taking into consideration the special conditions in the region, should be made available.

Librarians. The rural librarian is also a distributor, who should encourage the habit of book reading and buying. It is considered that short-term training courses should be provided in these aspects of librarianship.

Research workers. In order to carry out the research programme described below it is necessary to provide training to personnel who will carry out the special types of social research required.

Research

The meeting considered that there is a definite need for basic and applied research to determine and clarify the problems connected with the production of reading material. Some of the major areas in which considerable continuing research is needed are: (a) preparation of reading materials (both literacy training and simple educational materials); (b) production; (c) field use of literacy teaching, follow-up, and simple educational materials for adults of limited reading ability; (d) distribution and sales; (e) promotion of reading habits.

A list of the problems affecting the preparation and the production of reading material and related questions as listed above is annexed to this report. Research will be needed at the regional, national and/or local levels.

Clearing House Services and the Organization of National Agencies

There is need at both the national and regional levels for the creation of clearing house services which will collect and disseminate information of interest to authors, publishers, research workers, and agencies concerned with the production of reading material.

The meeting considered that governments in the region should promote the development of the habit of book buying and reading by assisting in the establishment of non-governmental non-profit-

making national agencies which, in co-operation with authors' associations, publishers, librarians, booksellers and the general public could undertake the following and similar tasks: informing the public as to what books exist, encouraging the reading and the use of books; stimulating interest in books on a particular subject and bringing them to the attention of appropriate sections of the community; collecting statistical information on particular subjects; investigating the tastes and needs of the public; raising the standard of book production; encouraging wider and more discriminating interest in books among all sections of the population; exhibiting current and rare books; publishing book lists and readers' guides and other comprehensive annotated lists of books produced in the country; preparing selective subject lists designed to help young readers and those teachers and parents whose task is to guide readers; undertaking the task of informing, educating and assisting all who have book problems to solve—and arousing the many who have not yet realized that books are of importance to them; working with parents and teachers to prevent the rising generations from becoming addicted to comic strips or turning to films as their sole form of recreation; taking part in radio programmes connected with books; arousing public opinion against deterioration in textbooks and pointing out the lack of school library facilities; maintaining close touch with other central and local organizations with a view to establishing suitable lists for circularization, publishing informational literature on books for exhibitions, and promoting the exchange of information between publisher and publisher, between authority and publisher, and between publisher, authority and the public.

Improvement and Extension of Promotion and Distribution Methods and Channels

The meeting was of the opinion that governments, voluntary agencies, and publishers should be actively concerned with the problems of promotion, distribution and sale.

Promotion. Governments could assist in the promotion of reading material in one or more ways, such as the award of prizes, the purchase of parts of the editions of books which are considered to be in the national interest, the assistance, by direct subsidy, in the publication of books which it would be impossible to publish on purely commercial terms at prices within the means of the average reader, and the publication for the guidance of authors and publishers of classified lists of subjects and titles of reading materials

which are both desirable and needed. Unesco could assist in the promotion of the production of reading material by negotiating the release of copyrights and translation rights. Voluntary agencies, publishers and booksellers could assist by organizing active professional and trade associations, arranging national, local and travelling exhibitions, encouraging the improvement of standards in the production of books through holding contests and awarding prizes, and organizing book clubs.

Distribution. The meeting recognized that the distribution methods used by government agencies and those used by private and voluntary agencies are essentially different. However, the test of the effectiveness of any distribution system is whether the reading material reaches the intended audience.

A government distribution system in the region generally has the advantage over private and voluntary agencies in being able to make use of government channels. At times government departments engaged in the distribution of reading material are handicapped by a lack of specialized knowledge and a proper distribution system. This often causes delays and bottlenecks. The meeting therefore concluded that there is a need for a study of how governmental distribution systems can be made more effective. This would cover such matters as the training of distribution personnel, distribution channels, and the desirability of establishing a centralized system of distribution.

So far no country in this area has an integrated national library service. Unesco should assist member countries in the establishment of national library services as they would greatly facilitate distribution.

Although potential readership for many publications is large even at the present time, the average editions published in the region are small. This tends to put the price out of reach of many potential readers. In addition, distribution of these publications is often restricted to an area close to the publishing agency. This is owing to a lack of effective promotion and sales methods, and of adequate distribution facilities.

The meeting was of the opinion that action could be undertaken in order to improve this situation. First, more adequate training of distribution and sales staff, as suggested under training, could be instituted, secondly, although it is beyond the capacity of most individual publishers to set up extensive distribution systems, it should be considered whether such systems—including a number of wholesale houses strategically located throughout the region—could not be set up on a co-operative basis. In view of the impor-

tance of such distribution systems for the promotion of reading material, the meeting suggested that national governments undertake studies to determine how such distribution systems may be developed. Thirdly, more book stores should be established; where this is difficult to achieve, the display and sales of books in general stores should be encouraged. Finally, as it is often difficult for a publisher to decide whether he should extend credit to a particular book dealer, publishers' associations should co-operate with booksellers' associations in establishing general credit ratings.

Problems of financing publications. The book trade has often found it difficult to obtain credit facilities from banks and similar institutions. The point is generally made that printed material is an insufficient security for extending loans. This presents a serious problem especially since the region has many newly established and insufficiently financed publishing houses. The meeting took the view that if better credit facilities which take account of the special status and responsibilities of the publisher could be made available to him, this would greatly promote the production of reading material.

The following possibilities for extending such credit occurred to the meeting: publishers could set up credit co-operatives which make loans available to members; the government, in co-operation with the national and international agencies, could set up credit funds from which rotating loans could be made to deserving publishers.

Closer Co-ordination and Co-operation between Governments, Voluntary Agencies and Publishers

The meeting believed that under existing conditions, i.e., a serious lack of reading material for the new literates, there is a strong argument for continuing, and indeed expanding the activities in the field of production of reading material of the government, private agencies and publishers alike.

In other parts of this report problems such as training, promotion and distribution have been defined and discussed which, though not identical, are common to all producing agencies. It is considered essential from the point of view of effectiveness and economy that co-ordination and co-operation between these agencies should be improved and intensified.

The first requirement for such co-ordination and co-operation is that each group should endeavour to understand better and appreciate the problems and needs of others. This could begin at

training centres where both government trainees and others would be trained side by side, and, through the establishment of contact bodies and the holding of seminars and workshops, in which members of all groups could participate and be encouraged to air and compare their problems and needs.

Government agencies engaged in the preparation, production, distribution, and sale of reading material, should be staffed by specialists in these fields. All efforts should be made to make these bureaux and agencies as effective as possible and to run them along commercial lines at least as far as this does not interfere with their special aims and tasks.

It should be stressed that most publishers in the region are in great need of assistance both from their own governments and outside agencies if they are to fulfil their task effectively. This is especially true if the ultimate aim goes beyond meeting the present stage of critical need and visualizes the establishment of responsible, dynamic and self-supporting book industries.

Encouragement of Authors

The meeting agreed that the encouragement of authors is of the utmost importance for the more plentiful production of reading material. Some suggestions for the training of authors have already been made. In addition, the following points were suggested by the meeting.

Unesco is requested to assist in a study of royalties and authors' rights in the region. This should be done with a view to assuring promising authors an adequate living and a fair return from their creative work. Such a survey should eventually result in formulating definite policies which would be mutually acceptable to both authors and publishers.

Encouragement of the formation of professional associations.

The vast majority of authors and writers is self-employed and suffers from a lack of financial security. A non-profit foundation for the aid of authors and an old age fund to which authors and publishers could contribute, would help to ameliorate the situation.

Unesco could contribute most effectively by instituting a number of awards to authors in the region.

Encouragement of Voluntary Agencies

The important role of voluntary agencies in producing literature for the newly literate audiences at the present stage of development

in this region was fully recognized by the meeting. These agencies require expert advice, facilities for research, financial aid, access to training facilities and fellowships in carrying out their programmes of research and production.

FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The meeting recognized that action to be taken in this field depends on the stage of development of each country, on the over-all programmes for community improvement and development already in operation and the facilities already existing within the country. In certain instances, action must first be initiated at the local level; in others at the national level; in still other instances, action can be more economically undertaken at the regional level.

The first major recommendation of the meeting was that many of the above needs and activities could best be met by the organization of research, service, and training centres. These would differ from existing institutions in several respects: (a) they would primarily train executives and specialists to staff agencies engaged in the production of the new type of literature referred to in the section on needs; (b) the training programme would place special emphasis on the needs of the area and would equip trainees to go back to their organizations fully competent to occupy executive or junior executive positions, to set up their own departments and, at least to a limited extent, train their own staff; (c) these centres are not envisaged merely as training institutes but also as service organizations—as such they will serve as clearing houses, provide research facilities for experimentation and testing and such general services as are at present available only in the more highly industrialized countries.

The facilities offered by these centres should be available to the government as well as to private and voluntary agencies engaged in the production of reading materials. It was suggested that Unesco recommend to the governments of the region that they make fellowships and scholarships available to their own agencies, to voluntary agencies, and to publishers on the broadest possible basis. The meeting recognized that these centres cannot be established overnight. Indeed it would be dangerous to start out with the establishment of a centre before its organization, curriculum and functions have been adequately studied and more closely defined. This survey and research could be the first step leading up to the selection of competent staff and the establishment of the centres as permanent agencies of the region.

In working out training programmes for these centres, the following factors should be taken into consideration: (a) the educational level of the trainees and special conditions of the region; (b) the programme should be flexible enough to provide the degree of specialization which corresponds to the needs of the area. It should be possible for trainees to take courses in any of the categories listed under 'Training' or to take a combination of courses which best meets their requirements. The meeting tentatively suggested that a period up to two years should be spent by a trainee at the centre, according to the importance of the courses.

In order to carry out adequately the necessary training programme, which must include both classroom and workshop methods, as well as the other activities and services required to promote effectively the production of reading material for new literates, the meeting considers that a typical centre should include the following facilities:

A research section, which the meeting was convinced must be part of a typical centre. This section should investigate factors relating to the training of specialists and the production of reading material. Furthermore, it would assist the production section and pilot printing plant mentioned below in the production of models of various types of reading materials; in testing materials, equipment, and techniques used in the region, and in studying ways and means to reduce costs and produce low cost reading material.

A training section and workshop for carrying out the proposed training programme.

A production section with pilot printing plant which would assist in training, research, and the production of model material.

A clearing house for collecting information and disseminating it to all interested agencies and individuals.

A magazine (referred to below).

In addition to providing the facilities detailed above, a typical centre should engage in the following activities: (a) it should co-operate with all agencies in the region engaged in the production of reading material for new literates; (b) arrange workshops on problems connected with the production of reading material; (c) organize the holding of seminars and refresher courses; (d) publish a magazine on the production of reading material.

Unesco should assist national governments in the region in the establishment of national centres of the type described above wherever governments so desire and are willing to provide the necessary facilities; and Unesco should negotiate with the govern-

ments of the region the establishment of a regional centre¹ or services which would meet the common needs of the region. In addition Unesco should take up with the national authorities (a) the question of reducing the difficulties connected with the importation of necessary raw materials and equipment for the production of reading material, (b) reduction of postal charges and the railway freight on educational reading materials.

UNESCO'S PROGRAMME

The meeting considered an outline of Unesco's activities and proposed programmes in this field, and agreed that Unesco's action should be concentrated on: provision of training; carrying out surveys and research; providing clearing house and information services; and contracting with agencies in the region to assist in the production of model reading material. Ways in which Unesco could effectively extend its actions along these lines are outlined under the activities proposed above.

1. Since established at Karachi.

APPENDIX

A LIST OF RESEARCH PROBLEMS WHICH COULD BE STUDIED AT LOCAL, NATIONAL AND REGIONAL LEVELS

The listing below breaks down each of the major areas listed in the report (see page 280) under sub-headings which should be the basis of research projects at the regional, national and/or local level. The list is not intended to be comprehensive but merely an illustration of the type of research that must be carried out and encouraged.

Our concept of research is a broad one; some studies will be of a basic academic character, such as vocabulary frequency counts, readability studies, etc.; others will be field studies, market research, field testing of materials, programme evaluation, etc. In most cases a short description is given under each sub-heading of the type of study necessary.

PREPARATION OF READING MATERIALS

Literacy Teaching Material

Syntax. Studies on the relative effectiveness of various methods of progressively introducing syntactical constructions in literacy teaching materials.

Vocabulary. At least three types of vocabulary studies are needed: (a) vocabulary frequency counts of the written languages; (b) studies of the spoken languages; and (c) field testing of general and specialized vocabulary lists to ascertain what words people know and do not know.

Script. Here studies are needed to establish criteria for introducing the many characters that are found in some languages.

Various teaching methods and the people's response to and acceptance of them.

Reading needs and interests of literacy class participants. Here we must systematically study people's reasons for attending literacy classes so that the aspirations of the people will be met in study materials.

Various methods of teaching reading, this entails experimentation using: (a) carefully controlled classes; (b) carefully controlled methods with clearly distinguishable differences; and (c) carefully constructed achievement tests so that achievement differences will be quantitatively observable.

Grading principles. This entails comparative study of the various methods of introducing and limiting in reading materials the vocabulary, syntactical structure, idea content and characters, and the use of different type sizes at various levels.

- Use of pictorial illustrations in developing comprehension and interest. How effective are materials with different proportions of illustrations? What style of illustrations are best understood by the new literate audiences?
- Fixing and defining literacy standards in measurable terms. Can quantitative measures be adopted on both national and regional levels?

Simple Educational Materials for Adults of Limited Reading Ability

- Reading interests, needs and abilities of the various types and classes of readers. Here are needed studies of library use and book sales, and controlled tests, in pilot areas, of comprehension and reactions of people to materials of varied content, layout, printing type, general appearance, paper and binding, format, style and presentation. Studies of socio-economic structure of communities will also help us to infer the vital interests of the people in terms of their daily living.
- Readability, vocabulary, and methods of text simplification. Here we need studies of factors which cause reading difficulty in various languages and ways in which materials can be simplified to suit the various levels of understanding. If possible, readability formulas should be constructed.
- Relative effectiveness of pictorial illustrations in aiding comprehension and in creating interest. Is there a percentage of page space that should be devoted to illustrations? Are there definite factors of style and content that make for good, understandable illustrations for the new literate audience?
- Methods and principles of testing and editorial evaluation—including pre-test and post-test field studies (e.g., readership studies, surveys at the field level, and criteria lists at the editorial level).
- Methods of establishing effective co-operation between the production unit and the community development activities of the State (agricultural improvements, health and sanitation, citizenship, civic education, cottage industries). Do advisory committees function and do members of such committees feel as though they are consulted sufficiently? Should editors receive general training in fundamental education as well as editorial techniques?

PRODUCTION

- Use of various papers for different purposes. Durability; effect on good printing; effect on cost of books; adaptability to various printing machines and processes; suitability for binding processes.
- Binding. Durability of various types of binding; relative costs; effect on audience impact of the book; availability of binding material locally.
- Printing machinery and materials. Durability of various types of machines; operation of different machinery in various climates; use of different kinds of ink in different climates and on different papers; relative

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efficiency and utility of different binding, block making, and automatic composition machinery.

Costing, accounting and estimating. What methods are used by printers at the present time; what improvement is needed and in what ways can such improvement be motivated; are there simple methods that can be introduced in small plants with limited personnel?

FIELD USE OF LITERACY TEACHING, FOLLOW-UP AND SIMPLE MATERIAL FOR ADULTS OF LIMITED READING ABILITY

Literacy Teaching Material

Motivation of people to come and remain in literacy classes and to participate in further reading activities. This would entail controlled studies to ascertain the drawing and holding powers of various motivational devices and various methods of encouraging participation in further reading activities..

Socio-psychological factors in gaining acceptance by the people of the literacy teacher and teaching programme: teaching material; teacher and his method of teaching; class conditions, including the location of the class, seating arrangements, lighting arrangements, class equipment, timing.

The evaluation from time to time of the teaching material and the methods of teaching, including development of quantitative and qualitative criteria of good teaching against which materials and methods can be measured.

Development of simple tests to measure the skills, the abilities and the attitude of students while they are in the class.

Tying up literacy teaching with other development activities, including studies of relative effectiveness of different methods of interprogramme co-operation.

Evolving standardized final tests to be given to students of literacy classes.

Simple Educational Reading Material

Evaluation of the impact of simple educational reading material, including studies to ascertain who reads materials mass distributed, what is understood, to whom the books and periodicals are lent by original recipient, whether the books and periodicals are read by others and to others, whether the materials are kept or discarded, etc.

The effect of various types of content, style and presentation, language, vocabulary, layout, design, typography, pictorial illustrations, idea load and so on, on the communication of ideas through printed materials and other visual aids. This entails carefully structured and controlled studies to isolate variables which may effect comprehension and interest.

DISTRIBUTION AND SALES

Free Distribution

Physically effective machinery for getting the material to the local level, including studies of blocks in free distribution channels.

Machinery for promoting the use of material once it has arrived at the local level, including studies of what has happened to the material once it gets to the local level; for instance, is it locked in a cupboard or is it efficiently used?

Handbooks and instructional materials for the local administrators and librarians on how best to utilize publications sent for mass distribution or library use, including studies as to what kinds of manuals are needed.

Price Distribution

Market research studies. To determine size of potential market for each type of book and each level of material.

The effect of price on sales. How great a deterrent to reading is the economic factor?

The effect of general 'get up' of the material on sale. Includes pilot studies in carefully controlled situations as to which of two editions of the same type of material sells better.

Effect on sales of different types of sales organizations. Can a sale or return system encourage greater local sale, is there a minimum discount that must be given to encourage dealers to handle books? Must there be widely dispersed sub-stations so that book stocks are relatively near retail outlets?

Advantages and disadvantages of using vans for retail sales as opposed to their use for servicing local outlets only. Can the cost of vans be amortized through retail sales only? If used for servicing local outlets, is the advantage over use of postal services justifiable?

The effect of postal charges and railway freight on the cost and sale of books.

Programme promotion, book series promotion, and individual book promotion, and the relative effect of different promotional materials for each purpose.

The effect, on sale of books, of providing to local booksellers sales aids such as book racks, posters, handbills and so on.

PROMOTION OF READING HABITS

Why don't people read? Because of non-availability of books, cost, lack of interest, non-availability of readable books, socio-economic status?

The relative effectiveness of different kinds of activities (i.e. book clubs, reading rooms, libraries, exhibitions, book weeks, prizes, etc.), in creating the habit of reading.

Effect of promoting reading habits through mass media.

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